THE

MONTHLY ANTHOLOGY.

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FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

The original letters, which we have frequently had the pleasure of communicating to the publick, have been in general written in different situations, and on desultory subjects. The following is the beginning of a regular series of letters by a gentleman, who has all the qualities which taste, talents, fortune, and liberality can give, to make him a pleasant traveller.

LETTERS FROM EUROPE. *No.* 1.

Departure from America...storms in the ocean...lunar rainbow...streights of Gibraltar...island of Sicily...Ustica...Lipari islands...coast of St. Eufemia ...arrival at Naples...quarantine.

Port of Naples, Feb. 1802.

You will, my dear friend, participate the satisfaction I feel in dating my letter from this place. The dangers and hardships to which ships are exposed in a winter passage across the ocean have been this season uncommonly numerous. From the period of our departure till our arrival here, we have been devoted to the fury of successive tempests, with only short intervals of good weather. We were told upon our arrival that we were not alone in misfortune, that the winter had been very tempestuous, and that the shores of Europe were covered with wrecks.

When in the latitude of the Western Islands, a most violent storm assailed us, which continued during two days with unabated violence. It cleared away in the evening, and I was witness to an appearance I had never before seen. The full moon was considerably elevated above the horizon, and her rays occasioned in the heavy cloud that was subsiding a rainbow, which continued in the most perfect state for half an hour. The arc was entire, but the colours fainter than those produced by the sun. The agitation of the waves gradually dying away, the splendour of the moon, the dense clouds on which this bow appeared with majestick elegance, altogether formed a scene, the sublimity of which afforded me consolation for the storm which was past.

The thirtieth day of our passage we saw the streights of Gibraltar, the pillars of Hercules, and the formidable rock, which, since its famous siege, must be deemed impregnable. A favourable wind gave the vessel a rapid passage through the streights. On one side of us were the shores of Europe, on the other those of Africa. Civilization and barbarity are here within sight of each other : Even the appearance of the shores was expressive of the different characters of the two regions ; the Spanish coast presented to view green fields, white buildings, and smiling cultivation ;

that of Barbary looked dark and gloomy.

After getting thro' the streights we saw two Swedish frigates with a convoy of forty or fifty sail of their countrymen. The wind was against them, and from what we afterwards experienced must have continued adverse to them for several days, during which they could not advance. The current, through the streights, runs constantly two or three miles an hour; merchant vessels and heavy ships of war never attempt to pass *out* of the streights with a contrary wind, though sometimes they have been known to experience a delay of two months.

The evening of the day we passed the streights the sky was covered with flying clouds, the night was obscure, and we were sailing with a gentle breeze, while the sea was remarkably brilliant; every little wave that broke looked like a bank of snow reflecting the rays of the sun, while the passage of the vessel through the sea made the water all around her so luminous, that I could see to read as clearly as by day. This sparkling appearance of the waves is said to denote an approaching storm, though afterwards we experienced five or six days of the only fine weather we had during the voyage. During the night the vessel had gone fifty miles, and in the morning, when I came upon deck, the coasts of Spain were four or five leagues distant, and those of Africa still more. The mountains of Grenada seemed to be on the edge of the coast, and the shining appearance of their distant summits recalled to mind the splendid aërial palaces of romance.

After three days we passed by Cape Tarolaro on the island of Sardinia, and twenty-four hours afterwards saw the island of Sicily and the singular fantastick forms of its capes and promontories. We tried in vain to get into Palermo; the wind was fair to go to Naples, and the captain bore away. Soon after we passed the island of Ustica, which is in the route from Palermo to Naples, a vessel appeared behind us of suspicious aspect. Like frightened children in the dark, to whom every object is a sprite, every vessel we saw was a Tripolitan pirate, and the sight of breakers was less terrifick than that of a sail. The ship in question sailed better than ourselves, and was gaining fast upon us. Every one of the crew was anticipating the horrours of slavery, when a violent squall came upon us so suddenly, that for several minutes every one expected to see the masts carried away, even after the vessel was put before the wind. After an hour, during which we had changed our course and were going with great rapidity, the squall cleared away, and we saw no more of the vessel which had alarmed us. This propitious squall, though it threatened us with destruction, was welcomed with great cordiality. How barbarous is the state of human nature! The sight of a vessel, on the dreary expanse of the sea, ought to be an object of the most pleasing sensations, and in moments of danger, alleviating the solitude of horrour, should inspire us with hope by knowing that others are participating the same danger; yet such a sight is deprecated more than the wildest fury of the elements, and we greet the howling tempest that separates us from each other.

The next day we were in the mouth of the bay of Naples, but the weather was cloudy and the land could only be seen partially. The captain thought himself to the northward of the island of Ischia,

though he was to the southward of Capra ; and instead of running as he thought into the bay of Naples, he was running down the gulf of Salerno. A storm came on towards night of the most furious kind, such as the sailors call *white squalls*. The flashes of lightning were extremely vivid, and the utmost exertions were used to clear the land. The next day the Lipari islands were in sight, and the vessel was tossed about on mountainous waves. I have observed, that *the seas are much shorter*, according to the sailors' expression, in the Mediterranean than in the ocean ; and the only advantage of a storm in the former is, that the swell subsides sooner after the storm is past. But it is a treacherous sea to navigate, and fraught with more perils to navigation than the ocean. Violent squalls often arise very suddenly, and I was convinced that the mode of rigging vessels in the fashion of poleacres is well calculated for this sea. They are enabled to drop their sails all at once, when a vessel with a mast in three pieces might be dismasted before she could take in sail.

At night, when the vessel was not more than four leagues from Stromboli, I observed it burning. It threw out flames to the height apparently of twenty feet ; this would last a few minutes, and thus it continued the whole night at intervals. During the day it appeared smoking, but owing to the distance and the light I could see no flames. Whilst beating off this island, and trying to regain the bay of Naples, another storm drove us upon the coast of Calabria. I do not know any Juno that I have offended, but Æolus did not torment the Trojan hero more than myself, and very often I thought of Virgil's ancient description of the storm.

Una Eurusque Notusqu rsunt creberque procellis.

The vessel was at one time waterlogged, the sails were torn to pieces, the foremast sprung, and with only a close-reefed fore top sail, we tried to keep off the shore ; no one had any hope that we should be able to do this long, and every preparation was made to be ready to save ourselves when the vessel struck, which thro' the whole night was constantly expected. When day light came the shore was still a league distant. The gale had moderated, and the swell began to lessen ; we were now near the bay of St.Eufernia. After five or six days beating about, we again found ourselves opposite the bay of Naples, in the same place where we had been more than a fortnight before. The weather was pleasant, but the wind determined to vex us to the last moment ; and though we were only two hours sail from the port, we did not arrive till the next day. My pleasure on arriving was much increased by contemplating the beauties of this bay, of which description has so often attempted in vain to give an idea.

The second day of this month the vessel was anchored within the mole. Though we had made a winter passage of sixty days, from a country perfectly healthy, the ingenuity of the health-office thought proper to impose a quarantine of twenty days upon the vessel. Being now in a place of safety, after having escaped so many dangers, I consider this as the last vexation of the voyage, and endeavour to support it patiently, as it will soon terminate ; though I have so long *enjoyed* the society of the captain and mate that I begin to grow tired of it. The latter asked me the other day, with a silly hesitating grin, *to guess* how much money he had spent since our arrival. I confessed my inability to fix any sum. " Why we have been here only ten

days, and I have spent almost a dollar."

The first day after our arrival we were besieged with beggars of every sort. They come off in boats and surround the vessel. One moment a capuchin would extend his cowl, and in a submissive attitude ask our charity ; hardly rid of him, before a band of musick would be under the stern, till something was obtained ; the serenade finished, a woman with three or four miserable children would be screaming for something. These scenes are so new to an American, that we always gave them ; and in consequence were so surrounded with supplicants, that we were obliged at last to refuse our charity altogether.

WHETHER THE WORLD WILL EVER RELAPSE INTO BARBARISM.

[From Dr. Arthur Browne's Miscellaneous Sketches.]

MY own opinion always has been, that the present state of illumination and refinement will be succeeded by second darkness and Cimmerian night, equally gloomy with the cloud raised by the crush of the Roman empire. The reply of those to whom the idea was suggested uniformly has been, *impossible ;* the art of printing renders such fears groundless. I answer : the art of printing itself may become exclusively the engine of wickedness, of vice, of folly, of irreligion. If the fashion or madness of the times should produce a relish for corrupted food, we may be filled with writings to satiety, yet swallow nothing but poison ; what infinite mischief has the press produced in our own days ! In France, the vehicle of every crime, it has been the easy propagator of blasphemy, of massacre, of anarchy. Whether it shall finally be a blessing or a curse, must depend on the taste of mankind ; and if that taste be vitiated, and feeds upon venom, the more it consumes the sooner will we perish. The press without morals will not preserve civilization ; and immorality will make it the vehicle of barbarism.

What do the common people now read ?...newspapers ; and what do newspapers contain ?...false news, false principles, false morals, endeavoured to be impressed on the publick by contending parties, without the least regard to truth, to virtue, or publick utility ; and who are the compilers of these vehicles of instruction (the only lessons learnt by the vulgar) ? often the lowest, and vilest, and most ignorant of mankind. *Socrates*, *Plato*, and *Aristotle* taught the Athenian people. The people of London are taught by the compilers of newspapers, the engines of the mob or of the court.

That the common people ought not to be taught to read, as is said by some, is justly thought a monstrous position, yet it might be rendered true, if all they read tend to mislead and to darken them.

Does the press improve their civilization ? that press which pours forth every day, for the improvement of our young men, the scenes of a brothel, illustrated with drawings ; and for its maidens, the delusions of a novel, or the evidence of a trial for adultery ? Query, whether the publications of morality and religion, numerous as they are, countervail the advantage which Satan derives from the art of printing ?

Suppose a nation should take it in their heads to condemn all old systems and all old books, because they contain old systems; suppose they should include the Bible in the number; suppose they should prevent the reprinting of all present learning, and insist that nothing should be published except their own new-fangled doctrines, and that these doctrines tended to unhinge all civilized society. Reader, are my suspicions wild? know then, if you know it not already, they were realized in our own day; they were realized in France within these five years*; they were realized by the tyrant Robespierre; by Robespierre worse than Omar, for Omar acted not from enmity to learning, but from friendship to Mahometanism.

It has employed the whole vigour of the French nation to return from their phrenzy to common sense; but nations will not always recover from their phrensies, and in progress of time my fears may be realized. France in its wild deliriums has astonished the world; they may be outdone by some more outrageous fever, which may finally end in the extinction of light and life. Human nature, insolent and presuming in its own strength, spurning the aids of divine revelation, and even of ancient learning, may relapse after convulsions into lethargy, and till the impossibility of such events be proved by some better argument than the invention of printing, I shall ever, from data afforded by the history of modern times, believe their probability. The age of pretended self sufficient reason will become the age of absurdity; irreligion will subvert all government, and anarchy lead to barbarism.

* These sketches were published in 1798.

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

GENTLEMEN,

THE immense archives of ancient learning in the famous library of Alexandria, since the publication of the Latin version of the Dynasties of Abulpharagius, have generally been supposed to have been destroyed by the inconsiderate, infuriate zeal of the Mahometan Arabs, on their invasion of Alexandria under the command of Omar, and "every scholar, with pious indignation, has deplored the irreparable shipwreck of the learning, the arts, and the genius of antiquity." If Hamlet, in the ravings of his imagination, did so force his thoughts to his own conceit, as to reason himself into a belief, that he could trace the noble dust of Alexander, till he found it stopping a bunghole; the world, with insufferable credulity, and without troubling themselves to reason at all, have traced the parchments of the Alexandrian library till they found them distributed by the command of an ignorant fanatick to the four thousand baths of the city, and, such being their incredible number, that six months were scarcely sufficient for the consumption of this precious fuel. Many writers in different parts of Europe have lately denied the authenticity of the fact, which is indeed marvellous. In 1794 M. K. Reinhard published a dissertation in the German language, in which he attempts to prove, that the library was demolished long before

the year 640, the time when Alexandria was taken by the Saracens. In the Spectateur du Nord, for September 1798, I find an article on this celebrated library, written by some one who signs himself V*****, whom I presume to be Volney, the celebrated traveller into Egypt, and who confessedly avails himself of the materials of M. K. Reinhard. Thinking that it might afford some amusement to the readers of the Anthology, I have made a translation from the French and now send it to you for publication.

Whatever was the ulterior destination of the Alexandrian library, we may ask, Have the learned world much reason to regret its destruction? Gibbon, in his history of the decline and fall of the Roman empire, [Amer. edit. vol. 6, page 368] seems to answer the question in the negative. "I sincerely regret, says he, the more valuable libraries which have been involved in the ruin of the Roman empire; but when I seriously compute the lapse of ages, the waste of ignorance, and the calamities of war, our treasures, rather than our losses, are the object of my surprise. Many curious and interesting facts are buried in oblivion; the three great historians of Rome have been transmitted to our hands in a mutilated state, and we are deprived of many pleasing compositions of the lyrick, iambick, and dramatick poetry of the Greeks. Yet we should gratefully remember, that the mischances of time and accident have spared the classick works to which the suffrage of antiquity had adjudged the first place of genius and glory: the teachers of ancient knowledge, who are still extant, had perused and compared the writings of their predecessors; nor can it fairly be presumed that any important truth, any useful discovery in art or nature, has been snatched away from the curiosity of modern ages."

Without entirely rejecting the opinion of Gibbon on this subject, we cannot however but believe, that our literary treasures would have been greater, if we still could have recourse to the library of the Serapion. By whatever means it was destroyed, by the worms or by the flames, by neglect or fanaticism, it is very certain that it would have furnished us with the works of Aristotle complete and correct; of Menander; all that is wanting of Æschylus; of Euripides; the poems of Empidocles, and of Stersichorus; a variety of philosophical writings of Theophrastus, Epicurus, and many others; and a multitude of historick facts, of which we are now forever deprived. These losses ought certainly to occasion some regret to the friends of the sciences and the muses.

But I am willing to acknowledge, in deploring the loss of the great library in the temple of Serapis, we may view with indifference the parchments burnt by Amrou, if indeed he burnt any. It will be clearly demonstrated in the following dissertation, that, in his time, the collection of the Ptolemies could no longer have existed; and all the historians affirm, that, for the two or three centuries preceding the arrival of the Musselmen, there had appeared an enormous quantity of polemical writing, produced by the Gnostics, the Arians, the Monosophists, the Monotelites, &c. &c. differents sects, which much agitated the empire, and particularly

Alexandria. It is very probable, that the houses of the patriarchs and the churches were very full of these writings; and if they afford-ed fuel to heat the baths, we are of opinion, with Mr. Gibbon, that they were ultimately devoted for the benefit of mankind.

SAMPSICERAMUS.

I. A SHORT HISTORY OF THE LIBRARY OF ALEXANDRIA, BEFORE THE INVASION OF THE SARACENS.

ALEXANDRIA, almost at the commencement of its foundation by the conqueror of India, became affluent and powerful, and its progress was still more rapid under his royal successors. It was divided into many quarters, which were like so many towns. One of these quarters, the Bruchion, situated on the banks of the sea near the grand harbour, included all the edifices attached to the basilicum, or palace of the king, the great college, and many others. The first of the Ptolemies, Lagus, did not confine his efforts to render Alexandria one of the most beautiful and commercial cities, he wished that it might also become the focus of the sciences and philosophy. In conjunction with Demetrius of Phalaris, an Athenian emigrant, this prince established there a society of wise men, similar to the modern French academies and institutes. He built for their accommodation that celebrated museum, which was an additional ornament to the Bruchion; there was placed that ponderous library, which Titus Livy styles, *elegantiæ regum curæque egregium opus.*

Philadelphus, successor of Lagus, seeing that the library of the Bruchion contained four hundred thousand volumes, either that the place could not contain a greater number, or that he was ambitious for a similar monument to eternise his own name, founded a second library in the temple of Serapis, called the Serapion, situated at some distance from the Bruchion, in another quarter of the city. These two libraries were for a long time called the *mother* and *daughter*. Cæsar, during his war in Egypt, burnt the royal fleet in the great bay of Alexandria, and the fire communicated to the Bruchion; the mother library was consumed, and if any of the manuscripts were rescued from the flames, they were probably deposited in that of the Serapion, which in future can be the only subject in dispute. Evergetes, and the other Ptolemies, successively augmented the library. Cleopatra there deposited two hundred thousand manuscripts of the Pergamean library, with which she was presented by Mark Antony.

Let us now follow the traces of the existence of the library. Aulus Gellius and Ammianus Marcellinus seem to intimate, that the contents of the Alexandrian library were burnt by the fire in the time of Cæsar. The first declares in his Noctes Atticæ, "that the number of the books, collected in Ægypt by the Ptolemies, was immense, amounting even to seven hundred thousand volumes, but they were all burnt in the war which Julius Cæsar waged with the inhabitants of Alexandria, not with premeditated design, but by the soldiers who were perhaps auxiliaries." [Lib. 6. Cap. 17.]

Ammianus Marcellinus, in the 22d book and 16th chapter of his history, says, "The Serapion contained an inestimable library of seven hundred thousand volumes, collected by the industry of the Ptolemies and burnt during the war of Alexandria, when that city was destroyed by the dictator Cæsar."

But both of the historians have erred on the same point. Ammianus, in the course of his recital, evidently confounds the Serapion and the Bruchion. It is clearly proved, that Cæsar destroyed some buildings of the latter only, and not the whole city.

Suetonius, in his life of Domitian, relates that this emperour sent copyists to Alexandria to transcribe a great number of books, which he wanted for his library. The library must then have existed a long time after Cæsar. Besides, we know that the Serapion was not destroyed until the year of our Lord 391 by the orders of Theodosius.

Without doubt the library suffered considerably on the last occasion. But after this it still existed, at least in part; which we cannot doubt on the testimony of Orosius, who, twenty-four years afterwards, travelled into Alexandria, and who declares, that he saw there, *in many temples, cases filled with books, the reliques of the ancient libraries.* It is worthy of remark, that this author, as well as Seneca in his treatise De Tranquilitate Animi, relate, that the number of volumes burnt by Cæsar amounted to four hundred thousand; and as it appears that the total number of the books was but seven hundred thousand, there remains, with what they were able to save from the library in the Bruchion, at most but three or four hundred thousand to compose the one in the Serapion.

The veracious Orosius, in 415, is the last witness we have, who testifies to the existence of the library at Alexandria. The numerous christian writers of the fifth and sixth centuries, who have transmitted to us many useless facts, do not say one word on this important subject. We have then no more certain documents, respecting the fate of the library, from 415 until 636, or, according to some, not until 648, when Alexandria was taken by the Arabs....a period of ignorance, of barbarism, of wars, of convulsions, and of fruitless disputes between a hundred different sects.

2. OF THE LIBRARY BURNT BY THE SARACENS.

About the year of our Saviour 640 the troops of the caliph Omar, under the command of Amrou, took Alexandria. For more than ten centuries no person in Europe interested himself to know what became of this celebrated library. At last, about the year 1660, a learned Oxonian, Edward Pococke, who had collected in two journies to the East many Arabian manuscripts, made known for the first time to the learned world, in a latin translation, the oriental history of the physician Abulpharagius, from whom we make the following extract..." At that time lived among the Musselmen *John* of Alexandria, who was called *the grammarian*, and who espoused the cause of the jacobite christians. He lived even at the time when Amrou-Ebno'l-As took Alexandria. He attached himself to the conqueror; and

Amrou, who knew the progress which John had made in the seiences, treated him with great respect, listening with much eagerness to his philosophick discourses, which were altogether new to the Arabians. Amrou was himself a man of much judgment and penetration. He retained this learned man constantly near him. John said to him one day : Thou hast visited all the magazines of Alexandria, and hast set thy seal upon every thing which thou hast found there. Of all that can serve thee I request nothing ; but thou canst reasonably leave us, what will be useless to thee. What is it thou wishest ? interrupted Amrou. The philosophical books, replied John, which are found in the royal palace. I can dispose of nothing, said Amrou, without permission from the chief of the faithful, Omar-Ebno'l-Chattab. He then wrote to Omar what John had requested of him, to which Omar replied,... As to the books thou mentionest, if they accord with the book of God, there is without them in that book all that is sufficient ; but if there be any thing repugnant to that book, we have no need of them : order them therefore to be all destroyed. Amrou upon this gave orders, that they should be dispersed through the baths of Alexandria, and burned in heating them. After this manner, in the space of six months, they were all consumed. Hear what was done and wonder."—When this recital was made known in Europe, its authenticity was admitted without contradiction. It there acquired full credit, and in the opinion of the vulgar it passed for certainty.

After Pococke we had the knowledge of another Arabian historian, who was also a physician, and who gives nearly the same recital. His name is Abdollatif, who wrote about the year 1200, and of consequence a little before Abulpharagius. We are indebted for the publication to professor Paulus, who made it after a manuscript in the Bodleian library. We here insert the passage in question. " I have seen also the Portico which, after Aristotle and his disciples, became the academick college, and also the college which Alexander the Great built at the same time with the city, in which was contained the superb library which Amrou bin-El-As rendered a prey to the flames by the orders of the great Omar, to whom God be merciful."

As this little narrative quadrates with the character for ferocity and barbarism, which the christian historians, particularly those in the times of the crusades, attributed to the Saracens, no person for a long time thought proper to call it in question. On this point we shall undertake to justify the caliph Omar, and his lieutenant Amrou ; not from love of the Saracens, but from love of truth.

[To be continued.]

For the Monthly Anthology.

THE FAMILY PHYSICIAN. *No. 5.*

I AM a sincere believer in the usefulness of doctors and physick. I believe that diseases may be mitigated, and diseases may be averted in many instances by proper management ; and that the proper management will more probably be discovered by men who

devote their whole attention to this business,than by the sick and their neighbours.

I am however aware, that very sensible men are hereticks on this subject. They say, the doctors theorize, instead of observing nature modestly and carefully ; and that their physick often irritates and sometimes destroys the patients, who would otherwise throw off their diseases more easily and more certainly. Now there is some truth in this charge, and I will join them in the opinion, that *my brethren* are too prone to theorize. This is not peculiar to them ; it belongs to mankind generally, and arises from indolence and an impatience to appear wise. All knowledge must be acquired slowly and with difficulty. The labour becomes too tedious, and men are ready to guess at the truth, rather than wait its slow and painful developement. This happens every day in common affairs ; and as the injury,which results from it, is not very great, it is disregarded. The error deservedly arrests attention, when the subjects are great principles, either in physicks or morals. It is remarkable, that men form an attachment to the vagaries of their own minds, which is oftentimes stronger, and excites more zeal, than a simple conviction of real truth. This circumstance aggravates very much the evils arising from a false theory. In our profession, men grow as warm in the support of their peculiar tenets, I had almost said as the theologians ; and as the sectarian in religion hopes, that all will be damned, who do not worship with him, so the father of a medical hypothesis is willing to rejoice if all die, who are treated according to principles differing from his own. They both persuade themselves, that charity and a love of truth govern their hearts.

These things must be so, while human nature remains what it is. Toil and trouble will ever be shunned. Society indeed renders them more tolerable by the compensation it gives for them ; and as this advances in real improvement, the compensation will increase, and of course the labour will more readily be procured. To correct our errors, we must trace them to their source. This consideration has induced me, to present the preceding and the following observations on the causes, which lead the faculty into the habit of theorizing.

I have lightened the censure, which is thrown upon us by spreading a part of it on the broad shoulders of *poor human nature* ; I mean to charge the remainder to a fault of our patients and their friends.

The importance and essential duty of a physician, is to advise the sick what to do ;—to direct their whole conduct. As the sick should never call a physician, unless they have more confidence in his knowledge and judgment than in their own ; so when they have received his advice, they should follow it implicitly. If indeed it is so opposite to their own settled opinions, as to destroy that confidence, then the motive for following his advice must cease to operate. But the patient and his friends are seldom satisfied with the advice alone ; they want to know the name of the disease, the nature of the case, and the reasons for the mode of treatment. In short, they want to be taught in half an hour, and that too while they are under the influence of strong feelings, what it may have cost the physician months to

learn, and might employ him hours to detail ; at a moment perhaps, when the circumstances do not permit him, to make up his own opinion decidedly ;—and he is too apt to think his reputation requires, that he should attempt to gratify them. They ask only for simple reasons and simple explanations, not wishing to look into the arcana of our art. Now simple reasons and simple explanations are precisely what it is most difficult to give them, and most difficult for them to comprehend. Accordingly, to save his credit, the doctor dresses up for them an explanation in unmeaning words, from which they fancy they understand a kind of something; and from the habit of talking nonsense to others, and finding them satisfied with it, he gets to value it himself. Here is the stumbling block on which he falls.

I know very well how much these remarks may expose the faculty to the wits, who, when their own bones do not ache, are not apt to spare us. But it is certainly true, that a man may be learned, and well versed in the practice of physick, and yet may not be ready to answer, to the ignorant, the inquiries above stated. For my own part, I should think well of any young man, who plainly refused to do it.

There are several reasons for all this. One great one is, that while all the world talk of the importance and advantages of experience, few people understand the nature and extent of experimental knowledge. We are all acquainted with the phenomena, which depend on the principle of gravitation. But if these phenomena were not so constantly obvious, as to render them familiar; if they were known only to the learned, and one, discoursing on the subject, were to state that it is found by experiment whenever any body, specifically heavier than the atmosphere, is thrown into the air it falls to the ground; and that the acquaintance with this principle might enable us to construct many useful machines ;—of one, so discoursing, many, not only of the vulgar, but of the better informed, would inquire why this thing was so ; and they would hardly value the philosopher's knowledge of this law of nature, nor be willing even to credit it, if he could not talk nonsense to them about the causes of attraction, &c. The truth is, that the knowledge of the law, or, as it is sometimes called, the general fact, is all that is wanted ; and this may be just as usefully applied, as if we could understand how such a property is impressed on matter.

Let us take a similar case in a science, with which a physician should be particularly conversant. The doctor is asked, what is the principle of life, and the inquirer expects to hear of some essence or quintessence, or of something like an electrick fluid, of which the experimentalist may exhibit at least a fleeting sight. He answers, that he knows not what life is ; that he knows only the laws of life. He explains by stating, that living, vegetable, and animal bodies are endued with certain properties and powers, which are not found in dead matter ; that these are attributed to the principle of life ; and that if they are discovered, although the other be unknown, the object of the medical philosopher is obtained. Now such an answer is not satisfactory, even to men of understanding, who are not conversant with natural philosophy ; and they will be

much better pleased with a pretender, who gives them an hypothesis about some humour floating in the blood, or through the nerves, which is the essential spirit, or animating principle of living beings. The truth is, that men who are unacquainted with such subjects, are more taken with that philosophy, which represents the world as supported on the shoul- of Atlas, who sits on an elephant, who rests on a tortoise,&c. Many learned seekers after knowledge commit similar errours.

I have stated one reason, which renders it difficult for physicians, to answer the scientifick questions of their patients. Perhaps I have enlarged too much in the illustration of this reason ; but it is a favourite subject. This reason is founded on the presumption, that the physician is perfectly able to give a satisfactory answer to one, qualified to understand it. There is a difficulty of another kind, which likewise may exist, while the physician is perfectly competent to the necessary explanation ; and it is one which many persons feel, while they do not clearly recognize it.

The practice of physick is an art ; and the precepts of this art, as of every other, are drawn from the principles, not of one science only, but of many. The point of art in any operation is, if I may so express myself, at the intersection of the rules or lines, which are afforded by the different principles, on which that operation is founded. But as circumstances vary, the point of intersection shifts, and so the conduct of the artist. Many principles then require to be stated and explained with precision, to account for one little operation. The blacksmith is continually performing mechanical and chemical operations, and these are variously combined. No one would undervalue his handicraft, because he could not make his employer understand in five minutes all those scientifick principles, on which his operations depend. He indeed is not required to understand the sciences on which his art is founded, while the physician is. But the difficulty is, not that the artist does not understand the subject, for I am now supposing that he does ; but that he cannot make another comprehend at once the combination of principles, with which principles individually the inquirer is unacquainted. It is like talking to a blind man, who knows not what colours are, of the effect of a mixture of colours.

Now I have been writing a page to persuade men that they are blind, so far as respects subjects which they have not investigated ; and I may add, that, in many instances, no common minds can suddenly flash light enough on such subjects, as to make them rightly impress their torpid organs of sight. If I have succeeded to persuade my readers, that their neighbours are thus blind, it is as much as I have a right to expect. It is hard to persuade a man, that he himself does not see every thing, which is put before his eyes ; although this happens every day to every man, both in the physical and moral world.

The limits of a periodical publication require, that I should postpone, for the present, the further consideration of this subject.

C.

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

The following is a description of the famous falls of Niagara, written by a gentleman of this state, who visited them a few months since ; and although it is not given as any thing new, yet it may serve to remind some of your readers, that no man ever repented a visit to that mighty cataract, and may induce them to go and behold the greatest natural curiosity of which their country can boast.

T.

JOURNAL.

Chippeway, Sept. 4, 1805.

After a hearty breakfast we set off (a party of four) provided with a guide and a bottle of wine, to follow the footsteps of Volney and Weld to the falls of Niagara, distant about two miles. The day was fine, with scarcely a breeze to interrupt the smooth expanse of the river before us. The distant noise of the cataract was much beneath our expectations, and all we saw of the falls, for half a mile, was the cloud of spray, which rose above them. This foretold some great cause.

Proceeding onwards, we come to a view of the rapids, which for half a mile above the main pitch throw the immense waters into great turbulence and foam. As we proceed, the banks of the river gradually become from five to fifty feet above the level of the river. Coming to a house on the bank of the river opposite the falls, we leave the road, and descend by an exceedingly steep path to a rich plain below ; now entering a thick wood and shrubbery, very wet and muddy, we pick our way to Table rock, the projecting point, where strangers are first carried.

Here we gaze at the mighty sight of an immense river, precipitating itself one hundred and fifty feet perpendicularly into an abyss, the bottom of which (owing to the spray) cannot be seen.

Our guide, leaving one of the party on Table rock, conducted us a small distance down, which gave us, as it were, a profile view of the rock, on which our companion stood. We were terrified and astonished ; we beheld a flat rock, not more than two feet thick, and of itself projecting ten feet, and the rock under it hollowing into caverns to the water, as appeared to us fifty or sixty feet more ; we saw our companion, standing almost in air, over the dreadful crags below, ready, it would seem, with the rocks themselves to fall ! Every one involuntarily cried out to him to retire, while the guide, smiling at our unnecessary fears, conducts us back to the further bank we had descended, where we stopped awhile to renovate our moral and physical strength.

Our next object is to descend Simcoe's ladder, before we arrive at the top of which, we have to pass down the steep bank, as before, and go over a plain nearly the same as in the path to Table rock.

We followed the guide by the ladder, leading down a rude precipice, which is continued along for a quarter of a mile to the falls, and is now the real bank of the river. Arrived at the bottom of this long ladder, we got down as well as we could, a height of about fifty feet further, descending over mounds of earth, bushes, and pieces of rock, tumbled together from the precipice above.

We are now nearly on a level with the river below the falls, which are a quarter of a mile dis-

tant, and the way to them exceedingly rough ; but, excepting one pass, not dangerous. This, I am confident, very few would attempt in any other place than this ; but the scenes around are so grand, as to inspire every one with courage.

When we had come within five hundred feet of the falls, we stopped to survey the objects around us, which are in the highest degree grand and terrifick. Above us hung a precipice, an hundred and twenty or thirty feet high, full of loose stones, which are daily falling, and the *possibility*, that one *may* fall upon you in passing, inspires the mind with no inconsiderable degree of alarm. Turning our backs to the precipice, we see before us (on the opposite side of the river, placed on a perpendicular rock as high as the falls) Goat island, dividing the falls into two great sheets, four or five hundred feet apart. The farthest are called Little falls, and the other Horse-shoe falls. The former is called little, only in comparison with the Horse-shoe falls ; and not being so easy of access, and discharging less water, is seldom visited by strangers. Then looking, as our way leads, we see the main fall, tumbling its prodigious waters into the bed of the lower river, and running off,wildly foaming beneath a cloud of spray in one general roar and confusion, magnificent beyond description.

We now proceeded, the spray wetting us more and more as we advanced, and the rocks becoming more slippery, but not dangerous. Before we arrived at the caverns, about one hundred feet from the falling water, where we took our stand, we were completely drenched by the violent beating of the spray against us, which, driven on by the furious rushing wind, that issues out of the horrid caverns under the falls, sometimes hid us from a sight of the falling waters and even from each other.

Having halted, Mr. B— first cautiously proceeded to get under the pitch, and, returning after a few moments, thinks he went about twenty feet under, but was hid nearly the whole time from us by the spray.

I was the next to attempt, amidst the mighty terrours around, a survey of these caverns, horrible as death, and where he alone seemed to hold empire. Facing the whirlwind, and necessarily disregarding the pelting spray, I crept as fast as the slippery crags would admit, without once stopping to think of danger. I went, as well as I could judge, fifteen or twenty feet under, or beyond the outer edge of the sheet. I durst venture no farther, but, reclining in a posture between sitting and laying, I first seized a small stone to bring away with me, an eternal remembrance of the place I took it from. This done, I paused for a few moments.

.....To attempt to describe my feelings, or to particularise each howling horrour around me, were vain. It is not the thousand rivers of water, that tumble from above...nor the piled-up precipice of slippery crags, on the top of which you lay...nor the furious whirlwind,drivinglike shot thespray against you, threatening at each gust to throw you into the merciless jaws of death below...nor the thundering roar of the cataract...not all these, that bring each its particular terrour ; but the whole of them together, striking the mind at once, appal the senses, and the weakened judgment gives way to the idea, that the rock above, which of itself supports the mighty

whole, has loosened from its foundations and actually started to crush the whole below !

.....I escaped before it fell... soon found my companions, and looking up, saw, half surprised, the hoary rock still firm on its foundations, amidst this seeming crush of worlds.

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

SILVA. *No.* 11.

Silva gerit frondes.—OVID.

POPE.

Pope was fond of imitating the ancients, though what he borrowed he improved, and his own thoughts were not inferiour to theirs. Some very beautiful lines, in his Elegy to the memory of an unfortunate young lady, he seems to have imitated from Ovid ; and I am surprized that Dr. Warton, in his excellent edition of Pope's works, has not remarked the resemblance. I shall quote both the English and Latin, that the reader may judge for himself.

What can atone, oh ! ever-injured shade,
Thy fate unpitied, and thy rites unpaid ?
No friend's complaint, no kind domestick tear
Pleased thy pale ghost, or graced thy mournful bier.
By foreign hands thy dying eyes were closed,
By foreign hands thy decent limbs composed,
By foreign hands thy humble grave adorned,
By strangers honoured, and by strangers mourned.

Though these are exquisite lines, (for no man, says Hume, can write verses with equal spirit and elegance to Mr. Pope) yet the following passage of Ovid unquestionably supplied the materials.

Ergo ego nec lachrymas matris moritura videbo,
Nec, mea qui digitis lumina condat, erit.
Spiritus infelix peregrinas ibit in auras,
Nec positos artus unget amica manus,
Ossa superstabunt volueres inhumata marinæ.

Ovid's Epistles. Ariadne to Theseus. lin. 119.

It has been the fashion, of late years, to depreciate the poetical merit of Pope, and to exalt, in strains of lavish encomium, the mushroom poetasters of the day. A writer, who with the rapidity of a Blackmore, shall finish an epick in six weeks, attracts the admiration of many, who consider celerity in writing as a proof of extraordinary genius. The reverse of this however is true; and the greatest master-pieces of writing, far from being dashed off at a hit, have consumed a very considerable portion of time in their composition. Perfection is the reward of great labour, united with great genius. The co-operation of both can alone ensure success. Without genius, labour would be dull and insipid ; without labour, genius would be absurd and extravagant. Had the Alcander of Pope, an epick poem which he wrote at sixteen, been preserved, he would probably have been deemed a great poet by those, who now dispute his claims to that character. These gentlemen require originality, at the expense of whatever absurdity. They prefer the wilderness to the garden, though the latter may possess all the beauties of nature, without her deformities. But true taste admires nature only in her charms, not in the gross. Neither poet nor painter would describe a quagmire, nor expose to view those parts of the person, which decency clothes. Yet nature has claims as equal to what is concealed, as to what is exhibited.

'True wit is nature to advantage drest,'

not a ragged gypsy, nor a tawdry strumpet. High, masterly execution is what constitutes a preeminent writer. He exhibits the best thoughts, exprest in the best manner. When he borrows, he improves; what he imitates, he excels. He commands a certain felicity of style, which, though simple, is highly figurative, which convinces by its energy, and charms by its beauty. Of all the ancient poets Pope most resembles Virgil. He has the same correctness, the same majesty of numbers, allowing for the inferiority of a modern language. There is scarcely a page of Virgil, his Georgics excepted, in which we cannot trace him imitating or translating whole passages from other writers, so that he has fewer pretensions to originality, than almost any poet ancient or modern. And yet what ancient author is so universally read, or affords so much pleasure, Horace perhaps excepted? Pope has more originality than Virgil, but less than Dryden. Yet who reads more of Dryden than a single satire and a single ode? Pope is the poet of the human species, the favourite of all ages, the oracle of all professions. Originality! Fiddledy diddledy.

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BAYLE.

BAYLE was a great and original genius. I believe, that it is not generally known, that his character is admirably drawn by Saurin, which I doubt not will be more acceptable to many readers of the Silva, than any original remarks of the present writer. 'He was one of those extraordinary men (says that eloquent preacher) whom the greatest wit cannot reconcile with himself, and whose opposite qualities leave us room to doubt, whether we ought to look upon him as the best, or as the worst of men. On the one hand, he was a great philosopher, who knew how to distinguish truth from falsehood, who could at one view perceive all the consequences of a principle, and discover how they are linked together. On the other hand, he was a great sophist, who undertook to confound truth with falsehood, and knew how to draw false inferences from the principles he supported. On the one hand, a man of learning and knowledge, who had read all that can be read, and remembered all that can be remembered. On the other hand, ignorant, or at least feigning to be so, with regard to the most common things; proposing such difficulties, as had been a thousand times answered, and urging objections, which a schoolboy could not make without blushing. On the one hand, attacking the most eminent men, opening a large field for their labours, leading them through the most difficult roads, and, if he did not vanquish them, giving them at least a great deal of trouble to vanquish him. On the other hand, a man who made use of the worst of authors, to whom he was lavish of his praises; and who disgraced his writings by quoting such names as a learned mouth never pronounced. On the one hand, free, at least in appearance, from all the passions, which are inconsistent with the spirit of christianity; grave in his discourses, temperate in his diet, austere in his manner of living. On the other hand, employing all the strength of his genius to overthrow the foundations of moral virtue, attacking, as much as lay in his power, chastity, modesty, and all the christian virtues. On the one side,

appealing to the throne of the most severe orthodoxy; going to the purest springs, borrowing his arguments from the least suspected writers. On the other hand, following the paths of hereticks, proposing again the objections of the ancient heresiarchs, lending them new arms, and collecting together in our age all the errours of past ages. May that man, who had been endowed with so many talents, be acquitted before God of the ill use he made of them! May that Jesus, whom he so often attacked, have expiated his sins!'

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PARNELL AND VOLTAIRE.

THE story of the hermit, which Parnell tells in verse, Voltaire relates in prose, precisely in the same order, in his romance of Zadig. Quere, which is the plagiary, or have they both borrowed the story from another? Voltaire continued an author for more than sixty years, but still I think that Parnell must have been his senior. Few have written so well as Voltaire on such an infinite variety of subjects; but in every department of literature he has been excelled by some. His immortality would have been more secure, had he confined his genius to any one species of composition, though his temporary popularity would have been less extensive.

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COWPER AND THOMSON.

I AM astonished that any one can prefer Cowper to Thomson. The Task is indeed a poem of considerable merit, exhibiting an original cast of thought, and a strong imagination. But it does not possess the same interest as the Seasons, nor do I recollect any passages in it eminently beautiful. There is so little order and connexion in this poem, that you might transpose the paragraphs as you read without injury. The style is indeed more pure and classical than that of Thomson, which abounds with gorgeous epithets and ill-sounding compound adjectives. But the latter has infinitely the advantage in the superiour interest which he excites, in more vigour of conception, in greater tenderness and delicacy, and in every poetical embellishment. I give the Seasons an annual perusal, and they always afford me fresh pleasure. I have never been able to read the Task a second time. As to Cowper's productions in rhyme, if any man can read them at all, I shall rather applaud his patience, than imitate his example. He seems to have no ear for harmony, so that, were we not acquainted with his age, we should scarcely suspect him of being a modern. Though there may be harmony without poetry, there can be no good poetry without harmony. The want of this indispensible requisite constitutes the principal charge of Horace against Lucilius, as the possession of it in a pre-eminent degree gives to Virgil and Pope the exalted rank which they hold among the poets of their respective countries. The satires and epistles of Horace we probably know not the true method of reading. We cannot at present discover in them that harmony, the want of which he censures in Lucilius, and which, for this very reason, they must undoubtedly possess. I once endeavoured to read Cowper's Homer, but I found it an herculean task, and I was no Hercules. It may possess every other merit, but certainly wants the power of keeping its readers awake. The first lines of the Seasons are ridiculous, as they contain absurd imagery. Observe.

Come, gentle Spring, ætherial mildness, come!
And from the bosom of yon dropping cloud,
While musick wakes around, veiled in a shower
Of shadowing roses, on our plains descend.

I quote from memory, but I believe correctly. Now reduce this to painting, and what kind of picture does it present? Spring, an allegorical personage, is described as descending from the bosom of a *dropping cloud* (quere, what does the cloud drop?) *while musick wakes around.* What musick, vocal, or instrumental? *non liquet, veiled in a shower of shadowing roses.* If Thomson had often written as ill as this, there would be no comparison between him and Cowper. But at present, as a poet, I think the latter decidedly inferiour. Though he may possess no passage so faulty as the one just quoted, yet he seldom rises above the level of mediocrity. Notwithstanding that the style of Cowper is unusually chaste, yet is there a sombre cast of thought, which seems to proceed from a mind not altogether sound and at ease.

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EDUCATION.

EDUCATION has been greatly improved in this country of late years. But though much has been done, yet much remains to be done. Our literary discipline is well calculated for common purposes, and our professional men are little inferiour to those of other countries in the knowledge of their profession. But here our claims to praise must end. Our lawyers are mere lawyers, our physicians are mere physicians, our divines are mere divines. Every thing smells of the shop, and you will, in a few minutes conversation, infallibly detect a man's profession. We seldom meet here with an accomplished character, a young man of fine genius and very general knowledge, the scholar and the gentleman, united. Such a character is not uncommon in Europe, but is here a *rara avis interris.* Whence proceeds this difference? From the inferiority of education among us. Our schoolmasters receive a mere pittance, and are consequently men of inferiour talents. Every man, capable of instructing well, follows some profession or business, able to support him. A preceptor, without genius, can never inspire a pupil with the love of learning. Instead of reading Virgil and Horace with the enthusiasm of an *amateur*, and of explaining them with the taste and acuteness of a Busby, he will barely require a *verbatim* translation, and a knowledge of the rules of grammar. The spirit and beauties of the author remain without notice; and what has never been taught will seldom be discovered. They go to college with but a smattering of learning, and often leave it with still less. For the same system of economy pervades our academick walls, and a college tutor receives rather less than a Boston labourer. Those, who are qualified for nothing else, consequently become tutors, and our guides to Parnassus are themselves ignorant of the road that leads thither.

The schoolmasters of Europe, particularly of Great-Britain, are amply rewarded for their labours, and generally consist of the best scholars in the kingdom. The employment is honourable and lucrative, and is almost always rewarded with some distinguished ecclesiastical preferment, the preceptors themselves being always clergymen of the established church. I shall close this article with the character of Dr. Sumner, master of Harrow-school, drawn by his pupil, Sir W. Jones, in the preface to his treatise on Persian poetry. The translation of course must be very inferiour to the

elegance of the original Latin.

'The reader, I hope, will pardon me, if I cannot here resist the temptation of extolling the virtues of this most learned man, who was my intimate friend, and of expressing just sorrow at his lamented death. He was a man of distinguished genius and integrity, of admirable temper, polite manners, and exquisite learning. He possessed, beyond any instructer I ever knew, the faculty of communicating knowledge; and such was the pleasantry of his deportment, that it was difficult to determine, whether he was more agreeable to his friends, or scholars. In Grecian and Roman literature he was profoundly skilled; and, though like another Socrates, he wrote little himself, no one could more ably detect the faults, or point out the beauties of authors of every description. Had fortune destined him for the bar or senate, and not confined him to the employment of tuition, he would have yielded to no one in eloquence, which is exclusively cultivated in Great Britain. For he possessed, if not in perfection, at least in a very high degree, all the accomplishments commendable in an orator, a musical voice, purity of language, a flowing style, uniting elegance and wit with a most tenacious memory; in a word, the eyes, the countenance, the action, not of a player, but of another Demosthenes.'

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

THE REMARKER. *No. 5.*

Parent operam censores, *ne quid respublica* [literarum] *detrimenti caperet.*—Sall. Cat.

SO little have the writers of our country been accustomed to the rigour of a critical tribunal, that, to secure a comfortable seat in some of the out-houses belonging to the temple of fame, nothing has been hitherto necessary, but the resolution to write, and the folly to publish. While, however, the same models of excellence are accessible, the same laws of taste are promulgated, and the same language is vernacular on both sides of the Atlantick, I know not why the sentences of criticism should not be executed in all their rigour on these western shores; or why the majesty of the republick of letters should be insulted with impunity in the remotest provinces of the empire. Every man of reading, who has watched the jealous spirit of the times, must have observed, that whenever an American work is censured in the journals of British criticism, their judgment is attributed to some unextinguished remains of national animosity; and when a critick among ourselves has sometimes ventured to speak in a tone of authority, he has been set down for a conceited imitator of foreign impertinence. So rare have been the instances among us of manly and unprejudiced criticism, that, to point out the faults of a living author, instead of making him grateful, only makes him mad; and he discovers all the fury, which is felt by an antiquated belle, when her little niece unluckily espies a gray hair among the sable honours of her head, and innocently presumes to pull out the intruder.

So imperfectly has the right of criticism been attended to among us, that many a sober citizen, I doubt not, is unable to distinguish between the privilege of finding fault with an author, and the wickedness of publishing a defamatory libel. But in truth this right of literary censure is bestowed upon

the critick by the author himself. Every man who publishes, virtually offers a challenge to the publick, or at least courts their decision. By claiming praise, he runs the hazard of censure ; and they, in whose power it is to confer the one, have undoubtedly a right to administer the other. ' S'ils veulent avoir en nous des admirateurs, il faut qu'ils nous permettent d'oser etre leurs juges,' says the charming La Harpe, in the introduction to his Lycæum. But if we have a right to judge, we must have also a right to laugh ; for nothing can compel us to read with gravity in print, what would have convulsed us with merriment, if we had heard it in conversation. If indeed we laugh at what is not laughable, or applaud what is not commendable, or hiss at what is not absurd, we run the common hazard of a critick in the pit, when he has clapped in the wrong place, and is sufficiently disgraced by finding himself alone.

It is plainly no violation of the laws of literary courtesy to hold up dulness and absurdity to the derision of the publick ; for it has long since been tacitly agreed, that if an author has a right to be dull, the critick has a right to be severe. Common equity declares, that one side ought not to claim a monopoly of privileges. Nothing but the immunity of satirical criticism can impose the slightest restraint on the vanity of authorship. By ridicule too, the taste of the publick is insensibly corrected and refined ; for many, who have no time to listen to a reason, are always ready to join in a laugh ; and thousands, who understand nothing of the principles of taste, can see an absurdity when exposed by another. How far it is lawful to distress an author by ridicule or censure, without transgressing the laws of christian benevolence, I am not casuist enough to determine. I will give you the opinion of the greatest master of moral science, as well of literary discussion, which the last age produced. " As it very seldom happens, that the rage of extemporary criticism inflicts fatal or lasting wounds, I know not that the laws of benevolence entitle this distress to much sympathy. The diversion of baiting an author has the sanction of all ages and nations, and is more lawful than the sport of teizing other animals, because, for the most part, he comes voluntarily to the stake, furnished, as he imagines, by the patron powers of literature, with resistless weapons and impenetrable armour, with the mail of the boar of Erymanth, and the paws of the lion of Nemea." [Johnson's Rambler, No. 176.]

Authors boldly encounter the silent neglect of the publick, and at the same time complain of the opinion of an individual, and imagine themselves outraged by the censure of a reviewer. While they see with much composure their favourite productions quietly devoured by the moths, those merciless reviewers, who have no more respect for a polished than for a clumsy period, and make as hearty a meal upon a genius as upon a dunce ; they will take instant offence at a critick, who presumes to separate in their works the dry from the nutritious, who accidentally makes a wry face at what is nauseous, or involuntarily rejects what is insipid. It is a common trick of incensed authors to rail against reviewers, as men who have impudently set themselves up as guardians of publick taste, or rather as a band of literary executioners. Indeed there is some show of reason in the complaint, that anonymous reviews are an un-

just assumption of authority, because they in some measure include the power of punishing, as well as of judging ; which powers, in every free state, should be kept perfectly distinct. To explain this anomaly I will attempt to give you some hints, which I have gathered from Bayle, who was long a dictator in the republick of letters.

The commonwealth of learning is the only permanent example of pure and original democracy. In this state, under the protection of truth and reason, whose authority alone is acknowledged, wars may be carried on with the utmost innocence, though not always with impunity ; for here every man is sovereign, and every man also under the jurisdiction of every other. The laws of *civil society* have in no degree abridged the independence of the state of nature, as to errour and ignorance. No man can be excluded by the social compact from his unalienable right to be a fool ; and, on the other side, every man retains the right of the sword, and may exercise it without a commission. " If it is asked," says Bayle, " why the civil authority should leave every one at liberty to expose the mistakes and follies of authors, it may be answered, that to criticise a book tends only to show, that the author does not possess a certain degree of knowledge or of talent.— Now, as an author may enjoy all the rights and privileges of the community, in which he lives, notwithstanding this defect of knowledge and of talent ; and as his reputation, as an honest man and a good subject of the commonwealth, does not receive by it the least blemish, it is evident, no usurpation is made on the majesty of the state, by showing to the publick the faults of a book." [Bayle's Dict. art. *Catius*. Note D.]

If then the correlative rights of publishing and of censuring nonsense remain alike unimpaired by the conventions, and established by the immemorial customs of society, it follows, that, if every writer of a book may publish anonymously, the writer of a review cannot be compelled to declare himself ; and, as the object of criticism is not persons, but works, there is no cowardice in this concealment. There is nothing dishonourable in firing at a senseless mark out of an ambush, or from behind a tree.

It will perhaps be esteemed a more difficult task to maintain the expediency, than to establish the right of critical severity, in the present state of American literature. It will be said, that our country is young, and therefore her infantile productions in the field of letters deserve rather to be cherished by the gentle and perfumed gales of flattery, than to be checked by the chills of neglect, or beaten down by the blasts of angry criticism. It will be said, that our most able minds will continue to shun the dangers of authorship, if every thing, which issues from the press, must be subjected to the unrelenting severity of anonymous remark. But is he a friend to the literature of his country, who wishes to excuse it from examination ? Does he think, that the easy multiplication of feeble works will eventually establish a solid basis for our future fame ? No : the everlasting oaks of our forests were not raised in a hot-house. The indulgent remarks of candid friends, the simpering smiles of kitchen-criticks, the puffing advertisements of newspapers, and the lullaby strains of poetasters, will never patronize the growth of solid learning, nor confer immortality on the authors of our country. We have yet to learn, that to write correct-

ly and to think sensibly ought to be made inseparable habits; if then, when a poet is a dunce, we say that he is a genius ; when an orator talks fustian, we say that he is eloquent ; when a writer is solecistical, we say that he is a little inaccurate ; or when a book is composed in a Babylonish dialect, we excuse it because it is American, we are only feeding children with sweetmeats, or wrapping them up warm against the cold, and thus laying the foundation of perpetual vanity, imbecility, and idiotism.

The earliest reviews, which appeared in Europe, were undoubtedly the most gentle in their animadversions. It is true also, that they were recommended by some of the most celebrated names, which the annals of literature can furnish. Bayle, Le Clerc, Basnage, and S'Gravesande* did not disdain to be editors of literary journals. But the first has always been censured for the encomiastick strain of his remarks, and the others commonly restricted themselves, except where their peculiar prejudices were concerned, to bare analyses of the works, which they announced. Since that time the state of the republick of letters has essentially altered. Then the literature of Europe was just awaking from its long repose in the cloisters of monks, and the legends of popish superstition. The liberty to think, and the disposition to write, demanded every stimulus and every encouragement. Now the licentiousness of the press has become a greater evil, than its inactivity, and instances of superfetation are more frequent than of sterility. Then the laws of fine writing were imperfectly established, and rarely understood ; now they are or ought to be familiar to school boys and abecedarians. Then the method of conducting literary journals was to be ascertained by experiment, and an author was to be flattered into a quiet acknowledgment of their privileges ; now every candidate for fame has it in his power to consult innumerable precedents, statutes, and declarations of criticism, by which the verdict of the publick and the sentence of the reviewer may be previously and probably conjectured. Then authorship had not become a trade ; plagiarism was not practised with unblushing effrontery ; nor were the scraps of every author's scrutoire swept out upon the publick ; now every starvling pedant writes for bread, and all that is necessary to constitute an author is, the industry to borrow or to steal materials, till he is able to swell out a volume. In such a state of things, it is not enough that a review contains an analysis of a work, for some works defy analysis ; neither is it enough correctly to state the subjects of a book, for that might be done by transcribing the table of contents ; but the faithful reviewer is daily called upon to detect literary thefts, to expose absurdities, to correct blunders, to check the contagion of false taste, to rescue the publick from the impositions of dullness, and to assert the majesty of learning and of truth.

....

* Bayle began the *Nouvelles de la Republique de lettres*, in 1684, but it was discontinued in 1687, on account of his ill health. Basnage de Beauval wrote a sequel of them under the title of *L'Histoire des ouvrages des Scavans*, which commenced in 1687, and was concluded in 24 vols. 12mo. in 1709. Le Clerc conducted the *Bibliothêque Universelle* from 1686 to 1693, 25 vols. 12mo. the *Bibliothêque Choisie* from 1703 to 1718, 28 vols. 12mo. and the *Bibliothêque Ancienne & Moderne* from 1714 to 1727, 29 vols. 12mo. S'Gravesande, the celebrated philosopher, edited *Le Journal Literaire* from 1713 to 1722.

In stating these lofty pretensions of the critick, we had almost forgotten the claims of the author. If I am asked, what redress can an author obtain, who has been ignorantly criticised, or unmercifully castigated; I answer; the redress of an author, who deserves any, will always be found in the ultimate decision of the publick. "The satire of Pope," says Johnson, "which brought Theobald and Moore into contempt, dropped impotent from Bentley, like the javelin of Priam." Besides, the name of an author will always command more intrinsick respect, than that of a critick. The former naturally takes rank of the latter in the ceremonial of literature. It requires less ability to detect faults, than to avoid them; but even if it were not so, the author should remember, that he forever retains the right of primogeniture, and the advantage of pre-occupying the attention of the publick; and while authors may exist without criticks, the latter cannot maintain themselves a moment, if writers should withhold the customary prey.

As to the herd of vain and disappointed authors I have long perplexed myself to find a remedy for their chagrin. I can recommend no better mode of avenging themselves on the criticks and on the publick, than by obstinately refusing to publish any more. It is true that there are many inconveniences, which would follow so decisive a measure; for the world would thus be deprived of much harmless diversion, and perhaps some of the brethren of the type would be thrown out of employment; but whenever I begin to be alarmed by these solemn consequences, and tremble at the growing tyranny of criticism, I find myself relieved by the humour of the following passage in Baillet, with which I will close the present number.

..."L'inconvenient de voir le monde sans livres ne sera jamais à craindre, puisqu' il est à présumer qu'il y aura toujours plus d'ecrivains que de gens sages. Ceux qui remarquerent que S. Augustin exhortoit fortement toute le monde à la continence, se crurent obligez de lui remontrer, qu'il prît garde aux desordres qui en pouvoient naître, & qui se chacun vouloit garder sa virginité, le genre humain periroit en peu de tems. S. Augustin se moqua d'eux, parce qu'il savoit bien qu'il ne seroit jamais pris au mot, & qu'il y auroit toujours assez de personnes de l'un & de l'autre sexe, qui ne quitteroient pas leur part des plaisirs du mariage. Que l'on dise tout ce qu'on voudra pour la continence, cela n'empêchera point les enfantemens; l'on peut assurer aussi que quelque chose que l'on dise, ou que l'on fasse contre les auteurs, rien ne sera capable d'empecher qu'ils n'enfantent livre sur livre. La superfetation est incomparablement plus fréquente parmi eux qne parmi les femmes; car combien de fois commencent-ils un nouveau dessein, avant que d'avoir achevé le précédent. Ainsi l'on ne se doit pas allarmer de leurs menaces; il est vrai que quand ils voyent qu'on maltraite leurs ecrits, ils forment le méme dessein qu' Apollon forma lors que son fils Phaëton fut tué d'un coup de foudre; je veux dire qu'ils songent à ne plus répandre la lumiere dans l'univers; mais cela ne dure pas, ils reviennent de ces premiers mouvemens; & on les embarrasseroit un peu si on les défioit dans les formes d'executer leur menace. Ils aimeroient mieux qu'on se gouvernât à leur égard, comme l'on fit envers Apollon, qui se vit très-

humblement suplié de ne laisser pas le monde dans les tenebres,

——Neve velit tenebras inducere rebus,
Supplice voce rogant.

Ils seroient même ravis qu'on les en priât avec l'autorité du commandement & de la menace, comme on la pratiqua envers Apollon,

——Precibusque minas regaliter addit."

[Baillet Jugemens des Sçavans. Tom. 4.]

FOR THE ANTHOLOGY.

SANS SOUCI. *No.* 1.

Stealing and giving sweets. SHAKESP.

THE meanness and servility of Dryden's hyperbolical adulation, in his dedications, has been severely and justly censured by Dr. Johnson; but the encomiastic language which he always used in these compositions was rather the vice of the times, than of the man. The dedication of almost every author of that age was equally loaded with flattery, and sometimes far surpassed any of Dryden's in extravagance of praise. Of all Dryden's dedications, the one, from which we made the following extracts, addressed to her royal highness the duchess Mary of Este, daughter of the duke of Modena, while it gives abundant proofs of the variety and luxuriance of his fancy, exhibits the most perfect specimen of what is called the celestial style. The duchess was, at the time of her marriage, little more than fourteen, and, according to Macpherson, of exquisite beauty.

'*To her Royal Highness the Duchess.*

'MADAM,

'AMBITION is so far from being a vice in poets, that it is almost impossible for them to succeed without it. Imagination must be raised by a desire of fame, to a desire of pleasing; and they, whom in all ages poets have endeavoured most to please, have been the beautiful and the great. Beauty is their deity to which they sacrifice, and greatness is their guardian angel which protects them. Both these are so eminently joined in the person of your Royal Highness, that it were not easy for any but a poet to determine which of them outshines the other. But I confess, Madam, I am already biassed in my choice. I can easily resign to others the praise of your illustrious family, and that glory which you derive from a long-continued race of princes, famous for their actions both in peace and war; I can give up to the historians of your country the the names of so many generals and heroes which croud their annals; and to our own, the hopes of those which you are to produce for the British chronicle. I can yield, without envy, to the notion of poets, the family of Este, to which Ariosto and Tasso have owed their patronage, and to which the world has owed their poets; but I could not, without extreme reluctance, resign the throne of your beauty to another hand. But with whatsoever vanity this new honour of being your poet has filled my mind, I confess myself too weak for the inspiration; the priest was always unequal to the oracle; the god within him was too mighty for his breast. He laboured with the sacred revelation, and there was more of the mystery left behind, than divinity itself could enable him to express. I can but discover a part of your excellencies to the world; and that too according to the measure

of my own weakness. Like those who have surveyed the moon by glasses, I can only tell of a new and shining world above us, but not relate the riches and glories of the place.' . . . . ' Fortune has, indeed, but rendered justice to so much excellence, in setting it so high to publick view ; or rather Providence has done justice to itself, in placing the most perfect workmanship of heaven, where it may be admired by all beholders. Had the sun and stars been seated lower, their glory had not been communicated to all at once ; and the Creator had wanted so much of his praise, as he had made your condition more obscure ; but he has placed you so near a crown, that you add a lustre to it by your beauty. You are joined to a prince who only could deserve you ; whose conduct, courage, and success in war, whose fidelity to his royal brother, whose love for his country, whose constancy to his friends, whose bounty to his servants, whose justice to merit, whose inviolable truth, and whose magnanimity in all his actions, seem to have been rewarded by heaven by the gift of you. You are never seen but you are blest ; and I am sure you bless all those who see you.'. . . .' Thus, madam, in the midst of crowds, you reign in solitude ; and are adored with the deepest veneration, that of silence. It is true, you are above all mortal wishes ; no man desires impossibilities, because they are beyond the reach of nature. To hope to be a god, is folly exalted into madness ; but by the laws of our creation, we are obliged to adore him, and are permitted to love him at human distance. It is the nature of perfection to be attractive, but the excellency of the object refines the nature of the love. It strikes an impression of awful reverence ; it is indeed that love which is more properly a zeal than passion. It is the rapture which anchorites find in prayer, when a beam of the Divinity shines upon them ; that which makes them despise all worldly objects ; and yet it is all but contemplation. They are seldom visited from above ; but a single vision so transports them, that it makes up the happiness of their lives.' . . . .' But all my praises are but as a bull-rush cast upon a stream ; if they sink not, it is because they are borne up by the current, which supports their lightness ; but they are carried round again, and return on the eddy where they first began. I can proceed no farther than your beauty,and even on that too I have said so little, considering the greatness of the subject, that, like him who would lodge a bowl upon a precipice, either my praise falls back by the weakness of the delivery, or stays not on the top, but rolls over, and is lost on the other side.'

....

In a tea conversation, at the house of Sir Joshua Reynolds, speaking of Percy's reliques of ancient English poetry, Dr. Johnson ridiculed that kind of writing, by addressing, extempore, the following stanzas to the young lady that made the tea :

I pray thee, gentle Renny, dear,
That thou wilt give to me,
With cream and sugar tempered well,
Another dish of tea.

Nor fear that I, my gentle maid,
Shall long detain the cup,
When once unto the bottom I
Have drank the liquor up.

Yet hear at last this mournful truth,
Nor hear it with a frown,
Thou canst not make the tea so fast
As I can gulp it down.

POETRY.

EXTRACTS FROM

SOUTHEY's MADOC.

....

AS he ſpake, I ſaw
The clouds hang thick and heavy o'er the deep;
And heavily, upon the long ſlow ſwell,
The veſſel laboured on the labouring ſea.
The reef-points rattled on the ſhivering ſail,
At fits, the ſudden guſt howled ominous,
Anon, with unremitting fury raged;
High rolled the mighty billows, and the blaſt
Swept from their ſheeted ſides the ſhowery foam.
Vain, now, were all the ſeamen's homeward hopes,
Vain all their ſkill! .. we drove before the ſtorm.
'Tis pleaſant, by the chearful hearth, to hear
Of tempeſts, and the dangers of the deep,
And pauſe at times, and feel that we are ſafe;
Then liſten to the perilous tale again,
And, with an eager and ſuſpended ſoul,
Woo Terror to delight us; .. but to hear
The roaring of the raging elements,
To know all human ſkill, all human ſtrength,
Avail not; to look round, and only ſee
The mountain wave incumbent, with its weight
Of burſting waters, o'er the reeling bark, ..
O God, this is indeed a dreadful thing! ..
And he who hath endured the horrour, once,
Of ſuch an hour, doth never hear the ſtorm
Howl round his home, but he remembers it,
And thinks upon the ſuffering mariner!

.....

And now the orient ſky
Glowed with the ruddy morning, when the Prince
Came to the field. He lifted up his voice,
And ſhouted, Madoc! Madoc! They who heard
The cry, aſtoniſhed, turned; and when they ſaw
The countenance his open helm diſcloſed
They echoed, Madoc! Madoc! Through the hoſt
Spread the miraculous joy, .. He lives! he lives!
He comes himſelf in arms! .. Lincoya heard,
As he had raiſed his arm to ſtrike a foe,
And ſtayed the ſtroke, and thruſt him off, and cried,
Go, tell the tidings to thy countrymen,
Madoc is in the war! Tell them his God
Hath ſet the White King free! Aſtoniſhment
Seized on the Azteca; on all who heard,
Amazement and diſmay; and Madoc now
Stood in the foremoſt battle, and his ſword, ..
His own good ſword, .. flaſhed, like the ſudden death
Of lightning, in their eyes.

The King of Aztlan
Heard and beheld, and in his noble heart
Heroick hope aroſe. Forward he moved,
And, in the ſhock of battle, front to front,
Encountered Madoc. A ſtrong ſtatured man
Coanocotzin ſtood, one well who knew
The ways of war, and never yet, in fight,
Had found an equal foe. Adown his back
Hung the long robe of feathered royalty;
Gold fenced his arms and legs; upon his helm
A ſculptured ſnake protends the arrowy tongue;
Around, a coronet of plumes aroſe,
Brighter than beam the rainbow hues of light,
Or than the evening glories, which the ſun
Slants o'er the moving many-coloured ſea,
Such their ſurpaſſing beauty; bells of gold
Emboſſed his glittering helmet, and where'er
Their ſound was heard, there lay the preſs of war,
And Death was buſieſt there. Over the breaſt,
And o'er the golden breaſtplate of the King,
A feathery cuiraſs, beautiful to eye,
Light as the robe of peace, yet ſtrong to ſave;
For the ſharp falchion's baffled edge would glide
From its ſmooth ſoftneſs. On his arm he held
A buckler, overlaid with beaten gold,

And ſo he ſtood, guarding his thighs and legs
His breaſt and ſhoulders alſo, with the length
Of his broad ſhield.

Oppoſed in mail complete,
Stood Madoc in his ſtrength. The flexible chains
Gave play to his full muſcles, and diſplayed
How broad his ſhoulders, and his ample breaſt.
Small was his ſhield, there broadeſt where it fenced
The well of life, and gradual to a point
Leſſening; ſteel-ſtrong, and wieldy in his graſp,
It bore thoſe blazoned eaglets, at whoſe ſight,
Along the Marches, or where holy Dee
Through Ceſtrian paſtures rolls his tamer ſtream,
So oft the yeoman had, in days of yore,
Curſing his perilous tenure, wound the horn,
And warden, from the caſtle-tower, rung out
The loud alarum-bell, heard far and wide.
Upon his helm no ſculptured dragon ſate,
Sate no fantaſtick terrors; a white plume
Nodded above, far-ſeen, floating like foam
On the war-tempeſt. Man to man they ſtood,
The King of Aztlan and the Ocean Chief.

Faſt, on the intervening buckler, fell
The Azteca's ſtone faulchion. Who hath watched
The midnight lightnings of the ſummer ſtorm,
That, with their aweful blaze, irradiate heaven,
Then leave a blacker night? ſo quick, ſo fierce,
Flaſhed Madoc's ſword, which, like the ſerpent's tongue,
Seemed double, in its rapid whirl of light.
Unequal arms! for on the Britiſh ſhield
Availed not the ſtone faulchion's brittle edge,
And in the golden buckler, Madoc's ſword
Bit deep. Coanocotzin ſaw, and dropt
The unprofitable weapon, and received
His ponderous club, .. that club, beneath whoſe force,
Driven by his father's arm, Tepollomi
Had fallen ſubdued, .. and faſt and fierce he drove
The maſſy weight on Madoc. From his ſhield,
The deadening force, communicated, ran
Up his ſtunned arm; anon, upon his helm,
Craſhing it came ;.. his eyes ſhot fire, his brain
Swam dizzy,.. he recoils,.. he reels,.. again
The club deſcends.

That danger to himſelf
Recalled the Lord of Ocean. On he ſprung,
Within the falling weapon's curve of death,
Shunning its fruſtrate aim, and breaſt to breaſt
He grappled with the king. The pliant mail
Bent to his ſtraining limbs, while plates of gold,
The feathery robe, the buckler's amplitude,
Cumbered the Azteca, and from his arm,
Clenched in the Briton's mighty graſp, at once
He dropt the impeding buckler, and let fall
The unfaſtened club; which, when the Prince beheld,
He thruſt him off, and, drawing back, reſumed
The ſword, which from his wriſt ſuſpended hung,
And twice he ſmote the king; twice from the quilt
Of plumes the iron glides; and lo! the King,
So well his ſoldiers watched their monarch's need,
Shakes in his hand a ſpear.

But now a cry
Burſt on the ear of Madoc, and he ſaw
Through opening ranks, where Urien was conveyed,
A captive to his death. Grief, then, and ſhame
And rage inſpired him. With a mighty blow
He cleft Coanocotzin's helm; expoſed
The monarch ſtood; .. again the thunder-ſtroke
Came on him, and he fell. .. The multitude
Forgetful of their country and themſelves,
Crowd round their dying King. Madoc, whoſe eye
Still followed Urien, called upon his men,
And, through the broken army of the foe,
Preſt to his reſcue.

,,,,,

THE BOSTON REVIEW,

FOR JANUARY, 1806.

Librum tuum legi & quam diligentissime potui annotavi, quæ commutanda, quæ eximenda, arbitrarer. Nam ego dicere verum assuevi. Neque ulli patientius reprehenduntur, quam qui maxime laudari merentur.—Pliny.

ARTICLE I.

Memoirs of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. Vol. I. 1785. 4to. pp. 568.

It is honourable to Massachusetts, that in the year 1780, in the midst of the memorable war, which terminated in the establishment of the independence of the United States, the American Academy of Arts and Sciences was incorporated by her enlightened legislature. According to the act of incorporation, "The end and design of the institution of the academy is, to promote and encourage the knowledge of the antiquities of America, and of the natural history of the country; and to determine the uses to which the various natural productions of the country may be applied; to promote and encourage medical discoveries, mathematical disquisitions, philosophical inquiries and experiments; astronomical, meteorological and geographical observations; and, improvements in agriculture, arts, manufactures and commerce; and in fine, to cultivate every art and science, which may tend to advance the interest, honour, dignity and happines of a free, independent and virtuous people."

In prosecuting the object of their institution, the Society has presented to the publick in this volume, the first fruits of their learned labours. The time, that has elapsed since the publication, will not, we hope, render a review of the contents useless nor uninteresting. To the Memoirs is prefixed the act of incorporation; and also the statutes of the Academy, a list of members, and donors with their respective benefactions. Then follows *A* PHILOSOPHICAL DISCOURSE, *publickly addressed to the Academy by their first President, the honourable* JAMES BOWDOIN, ESQ. *on his first election to that office.*

The learned and excellent president, after some remarks on the social affections, and their operation in forming societies of various descriptions, observes, in the spirit of true philosophy, with respect to the *American Philosophical Society*, which had been previously formed, and the *American Academy of Arts and Sciences*, "it is hoped, that, as optic glasses, by collecting the solar rays, do assist and strengthen the corporeal sight, so the two societies, by concentring in a proper focus the scattered rays of science, may aid and invigorate the intellectual: benefiting by their productions, not only the communities, in which they are respectively instituted, but America and the world in general: both together resembling some copious river, whose branches, after refreshing the neighbouring region, unite their waters for the fertilizing a more extensive country."

He afterward takes a cursory view of the antiquities of America, and of natural history, two of the subjects, to which the inquiries of the Academy are particularly directed by the act of incorporation;

notices the benefits, which the publick has derived from Harvard College; pays a tribute of gratitude to the generous benefactors of that institution, and addresses to their disembodied spirits the effusions of a heart, strongly impressed with a view of the great and extensive good, arising from their donations. Looking forward to the end of a century from the declaration of independence, he gives a character of the Academy, to which he hopes it will then be entitled in the pages of some eminent American historian.

The liberal spirit, that animates the society, appears in the following extract. "As the society is formed on the most liberal principles, and is of no sect or party in philosophy, it wide extends its arms to embrace the sons of science of every denomination, and wheresoever found; and with the warmth of fraternal affection invites them to a philosophical correspondence: and they may be assured, their communications will be esteemed a favour, and duly acknowledged by the Society."

This discourse appears to flow from a mind, correct, reflecting, well informed; and from a heart, warm with benevolence, patriotism, love of science, and engaged in promoting the best interests of society.

PART I. ASTRONOMICAL AND MATHEMATICAL PAPERS.

I. A method of finding the altitude and longitude of the nonagesimal degree of the ecliptic; with an appendix, containing calculations from corresponding astronomical observations, for determining the difference of meridians between Harvard-Hall, in the University of Cambridge, in the commonwealth of Massachusetts, and the royal observatories at Greenwich and Paris. By the Rev. Joseph Willard, president of the University, and corresponding secretary of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences.

Previous knowledge of the altitude and longitude of the nonagesimal degree of the ecliptick is requisite in determining the diurnal parallaxes of the heavenly bodies, belonging to the solar system, in latitude and longitude. Such parallaxes are necessarily used in deducing the longitude of places from corresponding observations of solar eclipses, as well as in various other astronomical calculations. The late learned and excellent president of our university has, in this memoir, given a method of finding the altitude and longitude of the nonagesimal degree, which he thinks is not only different from, but to him easier, if not shorter than any other, with which he was acquainted. The method is explained with perspicuity, and illustrated by an example and suitable figures; and may be easily understood by those, who are acquainted with the stereographick projection of the sphere, and spherick trigonometry.

In the appendix, rules are given for calculating the difference of meridians from corresponding observations of solar eclipses; and they are exemplified in determining the longitude of Cambridge from the celebrated royal observatories of Greenwich and Paris. Of the calculations by solar and lunar tables, in which Mayer's were used, it was deemed sufficient to publish merely the results, or particular elements, requisite in the subsequent parts of the process. The principles and rules, stated in the appendix, are well exemplified. It was evidently the intention of the author to render this method of finding longitude

easy to the apprehension of those, who, not having made much progress in subjects of this nature, are yet disposed and qualified to attend to them; and it may with propriety be recommended to their perusal.

The longitude of Cambridge is deduced, from observations of two solar eclipses and one transit of mercury over the sun's disc. The first of these eclipses happened Aug. 5, 1766; the other, June 24, 1778; and the transit of Mercury, Nov. 5, 1743. The observations used are those of the beginning and end of the two eclipses by Dr. Maskelyne, the British royal astronomer, at Greenwich; the beginning and end of the former by Dr. Winthrop at Cambridge, and the end of the latter by the Rev. Phillips Payson at Chelsea, 26″ in time eastward from Cambridge, according to a terrestrial measurement, made by President Willard and Mr. Payson; and the observations of the first and second internal and the second external contacts of Mercury, at the said transit, by some eminent French astronomers at Paris; and the second internal and external contacts by Dr. Winthrop at Cambridge. The mean of the results of these calculations, which appear to have been made with great accuracy, gives 4h. 44′ 31″ * for the longitude of Cambridge in time westward from Greenwich.

II. A memoir on the latitude of the University at Cambridge: With observations of the variation and dip of the magnetick needle. By Samuel Williams, F. A. A. Hollis professor of mathematicks and natural philosophy in the university.

This memoir contains the observations and calculations, by which the author determined the latitude of Cambridge. For this purpose meridian altitudes of the sun, six stars near the equator, and the pole-star, were observed in the philosophy chamber in Harvard hall with an astronomical quadrant of a radius, equal to $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet, made by Sisson. The mean of the results from observations of the *stars* is 42° 23′ 28″ north, which, he concludes, is *the true latitude of Harvard hall.*

No mention is made of the firmness or stability of the floor, on which the instrument was placed. It is however of great importance, that the support of the quadrant should be entirely secure from motion, at the time of making observations of this kind.

A few facts, relative to the variation and dip of the magnetick needle at Cambridge, are mentioned at the close of the memoir.

III. A table of the equations to equal altitudes, for the latitude of the University of Cambridge, 42° 23′ 28″ N. with an account of its construction and use. By the Reverend Joseph Willard, President of the University.

The importance of regulating a clock, that is to be used in making astronomical observations, or determining the rate of its motion, is well known to astronomers. In this memoir is the method of accomplishing this purpose by ob-

* On the 60th page the difference of meridians between Paris and Greenwich is considered as 9′ 16″ in time. This is the difference according to the Tables of M. De La Lande, in the second edition of his Astronomie, published in 1771. But later observations have shown it to be 9′ 20″. The difference therefore being called 9′ 20″ instead of 9′ 16″ the above mean result becomes 4h. 44′ 29″. The mean of the three results in the Memoir and that of observations on the solar eclipse of April 3, 1791, is 4h. 44′ 28″, which is now considered as *the longitude of Cambridge.*

serving equal or corresponding altitudes of the sun, which is generally used by astronomers, who have not an observatory. The reason of applying a correction to the middle point between the times of the forenoon and afternoon observations, in order to obtain the true noon, is clearly shown by a stereographick projection. Also the manner of obtaining the equation by the solution of two spherick triangles is explained. And then Wales' formula for determining this equation is given and exemplified. By this formula the table was constructed. It contains the equations in seconds and thirds for the latitude of 42° 23′ 28″ north, the arguments being the half interval between the times of observation and the sun's longitude. Small equations are also subjoined, by the addition or subtraction of which the equations in the table may be adapted to any northern latitude between 40° 23′ 28″ and 44° 23′ 28″.

IV. Astronomical observations, made in the state of Massachusetts. By Professor Williams.

The observations and deductions contained in this memoir, relate to nine lunar and four solar eclipses, one transit of Venus, and two transits of Mercury. Two of the lunar eclipses, namely, those of November 12, 1761, and March 17, 1764, were observed at Waltham. The rest, he remarks, were all that could be observed in this part of America from Jan. 1, 1770, to Jan. 1, 1784. The observations of four lunar and two solar eclipses, which happened within this period before October 1780, were made at Bradford. To view the solar eclipse of October 27, 1780, which arrested much attention, a station was taken on the east side of Long Island in Penobscot Bay, where it was nearly total. Several gentlemen, belonging to the university, accompanied Professor Williams, whose observations he relates. When viewing the subsequent eclipses, namely three of the moon and two of the sun, he was at Cambridge, and some other gentlemen, connected with the university, were associated with him on these interesting occasions, and in addition to his own he has published their observations.

The transit of Venus over the sun the 3d of June, 1769, was observed at Newburyport; and that of Mercury the 9th of Nov. 1769, at Salem. When a transit of Mercury happened the 12th of Nov. 1782, Professor Williams being at Cambridge, he and two other gentlemen of the university in company with him observed this curious phenomenon. Some deductions from the observations, they made, conclude this memoir, which contains many important facts, ascertained with care and ability.

To be continued.

ART. 2.

Report of the trial of the Hon. Samuel Chase, one of the associate justices of the supreme court of the United States, before the high court of impeachment, composed of the senate of the United States, for charges exhibited against him by the house of representatives, in the name of themselves and of all the people of the United States, for high crimes and misdemeanors, supposed to have been by him committed; with the necessary documents and official papers, from his impeachment to final acquittal. Taken in short hand by Charles Evans, and

the arguments of counsel revised by them from his manuscript. Baltimore, 1805. S. Butler and J. Keating.

In ancient times, the offices of king and judge were united in the same person; and it is certainly proper, that the father of a nation should be the steward of its justice, to dispense it among the members of his family. But experience proved, that the union of the original branches of government, in the same person, tended to despotism, and that a magistrate, with such prerogatives, was too apt, in the plenitude of his power, to forget their legitimate object. The wisdom of most modern legislators has therefore separated the legislative, the executive, and judicial departments, to the end that their systems may be "governments of laws, and not of men." Of these departments, the most vulnerable is the judiciary, and therefore it ought to be most strongly fortified by publick favour. Any wanton attack on its independence, any thing maliciously contrived to intimidate a judge in the exercise of his office, or to lessen the confidence of the people in his wisdom or integrity, is a crime against the state. This offence assumes a more terrific form, when it is committed by either of the co-ordinate branches of the government, because of the greatness of the oppressor and the extensiveness of the mischief. A firm and an independent judiciary is the greatest security against that spirit of accommodation, which varies according to times and political occasions. Tyranny may exist under any form of government. The voice of experience has proclaimed this truth, and should warn the advocates for the republican system, not to be too confident of its superior excellence. For whatever may be its perfection in the visions of theory, we know that it is liable to be disturbed by the whirlwinds of party rage, and that, in such commotions, the great and the good, who are always the most conspicuous objects of popular envy, are the first victims of popular madness.

No event of a domestick nature has, since the adoption of the federal constitution, excited in the United States a more universal interest, than the impeachment of Judge Chase. It is not for us to arraign the motives of the triumphant majority in the house of representatives, who voted in favour of that measure. But whether the charges against that citizen were well founded, or whether political intolerance, rather than a regard for the pure administration of equal laws, led to that prosecution, will appear from an examination of the volume before us. We would however confide in the wisdom and integrity of the constituted authorities of our country; and we wish to believe, that their conduct always results from patriotick principles, far exalted above any views of private interest or party rage.

The book is well worthy the attention of the law student, as it contains an exhibition of judicial proceedings, and much learning on the law of impeachment, and as it will stand as a precedent for future times. The course of proceedings at this trial was similar to that in cases of impeachment in Great-Britain. Great formality was observed throughout the scene, suited to the dignity of the court, and to the solemnity of the occasion. After the reading of the articles of impeachment, and the

answer of the respondent, the managers proceeded upon the whole of the charges, before the latter was permitted to enter on his defence. When the evidence was gone through, and the arguments for and against the prosecution closed, the question was put to each member of the court on each article separately. We shall briefly analyze the articles of impeachment and the respondent's answer. The importance of the subject will justify the attention which we shall pay to its exposition.

I. The first article charges Judge Chase with arbitrary, oppressive, and unjust conduct on the trial of John Fries for high treason, before the circuit court of the United States for the district of Pennsylvania, in 1800: 1. In delivering an opinion in writing on the question of law, on the construction of which the prisoner's defence materially depended, before counsel had been heard in his defence. 2. In restricting the counsel for Fries from recurring to such English authorities, and from citing certain statutes of the United States, which they thought favourable to his defence. And 3. In debarring the prisoner's counsel from addressing the jury on the law, as well as on the fact, which was to determine his innocence or guilt. In consequence of which conduct, Fries was deprived of the right of a fair trial, and was condemned to death, without having been heard by counsel.

II. The second article alleges against the Judge, that at a circuit court, held at Richmond, in 1800, on the arraignment of one James Thompson Callender, indicted for a libel on John Adams, then president of the United States, he overruled the objection of one of the jury, who wished to be excused from serving on the trial, because he had made up his mind as to the publication.

III. For not permitting the evidence of John Taylor, a material witness for Callender, to be given in, because his testimony would not substantiate the truth of the whole of one of the charges in the indictment, although it embraced more than one fact.

IV. For manifesting, during the whole of the said trial, injustice, partiality, and intemperance: 1. In compelling the counsel for the prisoner to reduce to writing all questions, which they meant to propound to Mr. Taylor. 2. In refusing to postpone the trial, on an affidavit of the absence of a material witness in behalf of the accused. 3. In using unusual, rude and contemptuous expressions towards the prisoner's counsel. 4. In repeatedly and vexatiously interrupting them, so that they were obliged to abandon their cause and their client, who was thereupon convicted; and, 5. In manifesting an indecent solicitude for the conviction of the accused.

V. In awarding a capias, instead of a summons, against Callender, whereby his body was arrested, contrary to the law of Virginia, which, according to a law of the United States, should have regulated the process.

VI. In ruling and adjudging Callender to trial, during the term, at which he was presented and indicted, contrary to the law of Virginia.

VII. The seventh article alleges against Judge Chase, that at a circuit court of the United States, for the district of Delaware, in 1800, he refused to discharge the grand jury at their request, though they had found no

bills of indictment; that he stooped to the level of an informer, by observing to the said jury, that a seditious temper had been manifested in the state of Delaware, which had been inflamed by the publications in a certain paper, called the "Mirror of the Times and General Advertiser," and that he at the same time recommended to the district attorney to procure a file of the papers, and select from them something for the ground of a prosecution.

VIII. The eighth and last article charges, that at a circuit court of the United States, for the district of Maryland, in 1803, he delivered to the grand jury an intemperate, imflammatory, and political harangue, with intent to excite their fears against the state government, and also that he delivered to them indecent and extrajudicial opinions.

Judge Chase, having been summoned to answer to the foregoing articles of impeachment, appeared on the 2d January, 1805, before the senate of the United States, then constituting the high court of impeachment. The senate assembled in their usual place of meeting, which had been prepared, in an elegant style, for the session of a court of justice. Being informed by Mr. Burr, the president, that the senate were ready to receive any answer, which he had to offer to the articles of impeachment, Judge Chase moved to be allowed until the first day of the next session of congress, to put in his answer, and to prepare himself for trial. This motion was prefaced by a speech of some length, in which he expressed a desire, to prepare an answer to the articles, which should contain a view of the whole merits of his defence. The charges embraced events, which happened in various parts of the union, and at distant periods of time. As the answer must disclose the whole defence, and as the defence must be confined to the matters stated in the answer, much time was requisite for the necessary preparation. He was to defend his name and his honour, and in some sense the honour of the judiciary. The court did not grant the request in its full extent, but, in consequence of this application, the 4th Feb. following was assigned for receiving the answer, and for proceeding on the trial.

On that day, Judge Chase produced the answer, on which he meant to rely for his justification. It contains "a clear, concise, and authentick explanation of his conduct and of his motives, supported by such a statement of his proofs, as may be extensively read, clearly understood, and easily remembered." The language is glowing and nervous, and the arguments urged with the force of a strong and active intellect. If it possesses any one pre-eminent trait, it is the wonderful fulness, with which the respondent replies to every part of the charges, which allege against him, either negligence of decorum, or turpitude of heart, in the exercise of his official duty.

It will be impossible, in an abridgment, to do justice to this masterly specimen of judicial eloquence. But as we have presented our readers with a view of the charge, we shall likewise attempt to draw an outline of the reply.

I. In reply to the first article of impeachment, the respondent admits, that the circuit court was holden before him and Richard Peters, Esq. the district judge, in April, 1800, within and for the district of Pennsylvania. At this

term, John Fries was indicted for high treason, and the opinion, which is the subject of the charge, was communicated to the counsel for the prisoner, after he was brought into court, but before the petit jury was impannelled to try him. This was the second trial of Fries for the same offence. At the first trial, the facts were fully proved, and his counsel rested their defence on the question of law. The opinion, which the respondent delivered, was on this question; viz. whether resisting and preventing by armed force the execution of a *particular* law of the United States, be a "levying of war against the United States," according to the true meaning of the constitution. In two solemn decisions, by Judges Paterson and Peters, in the cases of Vigoll and Mitchell, and by Judges Iredell and Peters, in the case of Fries, the prisoner, in 1799, on arguments at great length, and on mature deliberation of the court, this point had been adjudged, and had thereby become a precedent for all courts of equal or inferiour jurisdiction. With the correctness of this opinion, the respondent was, on full consideration, satisfied, and, in his own words, "by the authority of it he should have felt himself bound, even had he regarded the question as doubtful in itself."

The reasons stated for communicating this opinion, in the manner and at the time mentioned, were, that the respondent felt himself bound by the authority of former decisions, and considered it his duty, to prevent an unnecessary consumption of time, which was rendered precious by the pendency of more than one hundred civil actions, many of which had already been subjected to great delay. It was necessary that this opinion should, at some stage of the trial, be made known to the jury, and the respondent was therefore further influenced to make this communication, from the hope of guarding them against any erroneous impression of the law, since it was their right in this, as in all criminal cases, to render a general verdict of acquittal, which could not be set aside, although it should be contrary to law.

The respondent admits, that, at the trial, he expressed the opinions, that English decisions in cases of treason, at common law, against the person of the king, ought not to be read to the jury, on trials for treason under the constitution and statutes of the United States; that English decisions on this subject, prior to the revolution in 1688, ought to have very little influence in our courts; that decisions since that period, shewing what acts have been considered as a constructive levying of war against the king in his legal capacity, were admissible, but not those against his person. Those opinions however were not of binding authority in this country, but claimed respect from their intrinsick excellence, and from the exalted legal estimation of their authors.

The respondent insists, that it is the right and duty of the court, "to decide and direct what evidence, whether by record or by precedents of decisions in courts of justice, is proper to be admitted for the establishment of any matter of law or fact." He insists also, that he can be called in question only for the correctness of his motives, but he admits, that cases may be supposed, where a judge may have delivered "an opinion so palpably erroneous, unjust, and oppressive, as to preclude the possibility of its having proceeded from ignorance or mistake."

II. In reply to the charge con-

tained in the second article, relative to his having over-ruled the objection of one of the jury to serve on the trial, the respondent observes, that the juror wished to be excused, "because he had formed an opinion, that the publication, called "The Prospect before us," from which the words charged in the indictment as libellous, were said to have been extracted, but which publication he had never seen, was, according to the representation of it, which he had received, within the sedition law." The reason, for which a juror should not be permitted to serve on a trial, is, "that he does not stand indifferent between the parties." The juror in the present instance had neither expressed nor formed an opinion as to the facts. As he did not know, whether the contents of the book were really such as had been represented to him; whether they would on trial be proved to be true; whether Callender was really the author of the book; or whether he wrote it with that evil intent, which was alleged in the indictment, he stood indifferent as to the matter in issue in the legal and proper sense.

III. The evidence of John Taylor was rejected on the following ground. The twelfth charge in the indictment contained these words. "He (meaning President Adams) was a professed aristocrat; he proved faithful and serviceable to the British interest." Taken separately, they charge Mr. Adams with no offence, and consequently could not be indictable as libellous: but taken together, they intend, that Mr. Adams, being an enemy to the republican government of his country, had subserved the British interest against the interest of his own country; an offence both moral and legal. The testimony of Col. Taylor was rejected on the ground, that his evidence did not go to the whole matter contained in this article. Each count in the indictment contained twenty independent charges, or sets of words. Though one slander more or less in such a publication as "The Prospect before us," could be of no moment; yet as, on legal principles, a plea of justification must always answer the whole charge, or it is bad on demurrer, and as the same rule is applicable to evidence, when the matter may be given in evidence, without a formal plea; evidence, which went to prove only a part of an entire and indivisible charge, was inadmissible, and therefore the testimony of Col. Taylor was rejected.

IV. Posterity will be astonished, that it was made an article in an impeachment against a judge, that he required the counsel to reduce their interrogatories to writing, in a case of some difficulty, and for a more accurate observation of them. No lawyer could ever doubt the right of a judge to make such an order, if he deemed it necessary. That it should excite murmurs, much more that it should be the ground of a serious charge against the respondent, for misconduct in his official character, betrays in the counsel a childish impatience of restraint, and must forever be recorded, as a monument of the condescension of the illustrious majority in the house of representatives, for the year 1804. If the court is the proper tribunal to decide all questions of evidence, it is certainly the duty of the judges, to use great deliberation, whenever the correct decision of these questions requires the application of exquisite legal principles, and great subtlety of reasoning.

It is one of the specifications in

this article against Judge Chase, that he refused to postpone the trial of Callender. The continuance of a cause does not depend on the arbitrary will of the court, but on fixed principles. Every application for a continuance must come within those rules, or the trial must proceed. The true and only reason for granting a continuance is, that the party accused may have the best opportunity, which the law can afford him, of making his defence. Where the ground of a continuance is the absence of witnesses, it is a settled rule, and made necessary to the expeditious and happy administration of justice, that the application should be supported by an affidavit, that the testimony wanted is "competent and material," and that there is "reasonable expectation of procuring it within the time prescribed." The affidavit of Callender did not state, that he expected to procure, at the next term, such evidence as he wanted, or that he should obtain the attendance of the absent witnesses, who were scattered over the union. The affidavit was clearly defective, and it became the duty of the court to reject the application.

After perusing the trial of Callender, it is apparent from the conduct of his counsel, that they were unwilling to be tied down to an observance of the rules of law. It would have been vastly agreeable to them, and very much for the interest of their client, could the cause have been tried by a mob, instead of being heard before a tribunal, whose judges well knew the rules of law, and had the virtue to accomplish the duties of their official station.

In concluding his defence againſt thoſe charges, contained in the fourth article of impeachment, he declares, that his whole conduct in that trial, was regulated by a ſtrict regard to the principles of law, and by an honeſt deſire to do juſtice between the United States and the party accuſed. He felt a ſincere wiſh, on the one hand, that the traverſer might eſtabliſh his innocence, by thoſe fair and ſufficient means which the law allows; and a determination on the other, that he ſhould not, by ſubterfuges and frivolous pretences, ſport with the juſtice of the country, and evade that puniſhment of which, if guilty, he was ſo proper an object. Theſe intentions, he is confident, were legal and laudable; and if, in any part of his conduct, he ſwerved from this line, it was an error of his judgment and not of his heart.

V. In replying to the fifth article of the impeachment, the respondent shews, that the managers, who fabricated the article, were guilty of a material oversight in citing the law of Virginia, on which it is founded. The charge is, for awarding an erroneous process against Callender. But by the statute, it is left in the discretion of the court to award *the proper process*, provided it will bring the offender to answer to the presentment. The Judge then proves incontrovertibly, that in issuing a capias, his conduct was perfectly correct.

VI. The sixth article charges the respondent with an intent to oppress Callender, in adjudging him to trial, during the term at which he was presented and indicted. But the respondent denies, that the law of Virginia, to which this article refers, warrants the inference drawn from it; "because it speaks of presentments, and not of indictments, which are very different things; and is, as he is informed, confirmed, by practice and construction in the state of Virginia, to cases of small offences, which are to be tried by the court itself upon the presentment, without an indictment, or the intervention of a jury."

In passing a judgment on the character of the majority in the house of representatives, who voted in favour of the impeachment, posterity will inquire, wherefore Judge Chase was selected, as the sole object of this impeachment. He was but one of the judges, who constituted the courts, in which the facts took place. In the opinions expressed, and in the judgments rendered, the associates of Judge Chase concurred in sentiment. The turpitude, if any, attached to both. Why were actions regarded in one as venial, while they were made the subject of a criminal charge against the other? Was it because Judge Chase would be a more splendid victim on the altar of political intolerance? Or was it to sooth the wounded feelings of the principal prosecutor? In the eye of impartial minds, remote from the scene of action, and free from those impediments, which obscure the clearness of its vision, this selection remains a record of partiality.

VII. It is sufficient to shew the futility of the charges, contained in the seventh article, to observe, that they do in substance amount to this; "that the respondent refused to discharge a grand jury on their request, which is every day's practice, and which he was bound to do, if he believed that the due administration of justice required their longer attendance; that he directed the attention of the grand jury to an offence against a statute of the United States, which he had been informed was committed in the district; and that he desired the district attorney to aid the grand jury, in their inquiries concerning the existence and nature of this offence. By these three acts, each of which it was his duty to perform, he is alleged, "to have degraded his high judicial functions, and tended to impair the publick confidence in, and respect for, the tribunals of justice, so essential to the general welfare."

VIII. In replying to the eighth article, the respondent avows the political opinions, which he is charged with uttering. He then adds:

It has been the practice in this country, ever since the beginning of the revolution, which separated us from Great Britain, for the judges to expreſs from the bench, by way of charge to the grand jury, and to enforce to the utmoſt of their ability, ſuch political opinions, as they thought correct and uſeful. There have been inſtances in which the legiſlative bodies of this country, have recommended this practice of the judges; and it was adopted by the judges of the ſupreme court of the United States, as ſoon as the preſent judicial ſyſtem was eſtabliſhed. If the legiſlature of the United States conſidered this practice as miſchievous, dangerous, or liable to abuſe, they might have forbidden it by law; to the penalties of which, ſuch judges as might afterwards tranſgreſs it, would be juſtly ſubjected. By not forbiding it, the legiſlature has given to it an implied ſanction; and for that legiſlature to puniſh it now by way of impeachment, would be to convert into a crime, by an ex poſt facto proceeding, an act which when it was done and at all times before, they had themſelves virtually declared to be innocent. Such conduct would be utterly ſubverſive of the fundamental principles on which free government reſts; and would form a precedent for the moſt ſanguinary and arbitrary perſecutions, under the forms of law.

He then with brevity examines the political opinions, which were incorporated in his address to the grand jury, and in a satisfactory manner defends them.

The close of the respondent's plea is inexpressibly solemn and dignified. We insert it as a specimen of genuine eloquence.

This reſpondent has now laid before this honourable court, as well as the time allowed him would permit, all the circumſtances of this caſe. With an humble truſt in Providence and a conſciouſneſs that he hath diſcharged all his official duties with juſtice and impartiality, to the beſt of his knowledge and abilities; and that intentionally he hath committed no crime or miſdemeanour, or any violation of the conſtitution or laws of his country—Confiding in the impartiality, independence, and integrity of his judges, and that they will patiently hear and conſcientiouſly determine this caſe, without being influenced by the ſpirit of party, by popular prejudice, or political motives, he cheerfully ſubmits himſelf to their deciſion.

If it ſhall appear to this honourable court from the evidence produced, that he hath acted in his *judicial* character with wilful injuſtice or partiality, he doth not wiſh any favour, but expects that the whole extent of the puniſhment permitted in the conſtitution will be inflicted upon him.

If any part of his *official* conduct ſhall appear to this honourable court, *ſtricti juris*, to have been illegal, or to have proceeded from *ignorance* or *error* in judgment; or if any part of his conduct ſhall appear, although illegal, to have been irregular or improper, but not to have flowed from a depravity of heart, or any unworthy motives, he feels confident that this court will make allowance for the imperfections and frailties incident to man. He is ſatisfied that every member of this tribunal will obſerve the principles of humanity and juſtice, will preſume him innocent, until his guilt ſhall be eſtabliſhed by legal and credible witneſſes; and will be governed in his deciſion, by the moral and chriſtian rule, of rendering that juſtice to this reſpondent, which he would wiſh to receive.

This reſpondent now ſtands not merely before an earthly tribunal, but alſo before that awful Being, whoſe preſence fills all ſpace, and whoſe all ſeeing eye more eſpecially ſurveys the temples of juſtice and religion. In a little time, his accuſers, his judges, and himſelf muſt appear at the Bar of Omnipotence, where the ſecrets of all hearts ſhall be diſcloſed, and every human being ſhall anſwer for his deeds done in the body, and ſhall be compelled to give evidence againſt himſelf in the preſence of aſſembled univerſe. To his Omniſcient Judge, at that awful hour, he now appeals for the rectitude and purity of his conduct, as to all the matters of which he is this day accuſed.

He hath now only to adjure each member of this honourable court, by the living GOD, and in his holy name, to render impartial juſtice to him, according to the conſtitution and laws of the United States. He makes this ſolemn demand of each member, by all his hopes of happineſs in the world to come, which he will have voluntarily renounced by the oath he has taken; if he ſhall wilfully do this reſpondent injuſtice, or diſregard the conſtitution or laws of the United States, which he has ſolemnly ſworn to make the rule and ſtandard of his judgment and deciſion.

The object of the review of a book is to communicate to the publick information of its contents, and to pourtray its excellencies and defects. Milton obſerves, "that it is of greateſt concernment in the church and commonwealth, to have a vigilant eye how books demeane themſelves, as well as men." From regard to publick conſiderations, we always look on a new publication with jealouſy, well aſſured, that if it is written for immortality, no wound, which it can receive from the ſeverity of criticiſm, will be fatal to its exiſtence. But if books inculcate evil and pernicious principles, either in taſte or morals, "ſince they doe contain a potencie of life in them to be as active as that ſoule whoſe progeny they are," they muſt, at the tribunal of criticiſm, be duly informed againſt, and proſecuted to conviction and puniſhment, as offenders againſt the peace and dignity of the commonwealth.

This trial, the courſe of the proceedings, the examination of the witneſſes, and the arguments for and againſt the proſecution, are worthy the attention of all the citizens, but more particularly of the

law student. To him we recommend it, as an authoritative exhibition of correctness in judicial proceedings, displaying the application of principles to practice. But the book is printed on poor paper, and in a miserable style of execution. Frequent and scandalous errours occur in the orthography. It has all the marks of hurry, which no necessity will palliate, and for which the editors, considering the dignity of the subject, and the extensive patronage, which they had obtained, are inexcusable. We have seen the first volume of Smith's edition of the trial, which is executed, in point of typographical neatness, with much greater care, and in a superiour style. In Evans's report, the arguments of the counsel for the respondent, and in Smith's edition, the arguments of the managers were revised and corrected by them prior to their publication. So far as we able to judge, by comparing the speeches of the respective orators in the two editions, it is generally true, that in both they have been reported with fidelity. Where they have been revised and corrected by the orators, many of them are worthy of the occasion, and do honour to the taste and eloquence of our country. To those, who are conversant in courts of justice, it is well known, that to speak eloquently on important subjects, without deep premeditation, requires the highest efforts of the human intellect. The report of a speech is usually, though not necessarily, an abridgment of it. The reporter is solicitous to catch the sentiment. He is seldom able to exhibit the beauties of style and manner. He can preserve the bones and sinews. The anatomy may be perfect, but the delicate shades of complexion, and the graces of form and gesture are gone.

The managers on the part of the house of representatives, were, Messrs. John Randolph, Rodney, Nicholson, Early, Boyle, and G. W. Campbell. The counsel for the respondent were, Messrs. Harper, Martin, Hopkinson, Key, and C. Lee.

The replication to the answer of the respondent, filed by the managers, on behalf of the house of representatives, was framed from the form of the replication, which was filed in the celebrated case of Warren Hastings.

Mr. Randolph opened the cause on the part of the house of representatives in a speech, in which he took a general survey of the charges. We naturally expected, that Mr. R. would, in this speech, have exerted all his talents, to give the most clear and favourable appearance to the cause, which he supported. We expected, that after a brief and clear exhibition of the charges, he would have followed the respondent's plea, and displayed, what is styled in the replication, "its evasive insinuations," and "its misrepresentation of facts:" and, since it was "utterly false and untrue," that he would have stript it of "its gloss and colouring." Much time having elapsed, since the subject had pressed on his attention, it would, we presume, have been easy for him; and, considering the novelty of the occasion, it would have been useful, briefly to have exposed the law of impeachment. But his speech is extremely barren of matter, and defective in argument. Even in its revised form, it has none of those qualities, which constitute eloquence. It is not recommended to us by the poor merit of splendid declamation, or of

ingenious sophistry. In fact, the Sampson seems to rise up among the Philistines, shorn of his locks. The following passage will give an idea of his manner. It is animated, but the sentiment is extremely incorrect and paradoxical. Its tendency is to extend impunity to criminals, by dissolving their counsel from the observance of the salutary maxims of the law in the conduct of their trials.

We are prepared to prove, what the respondent has in part admitted, that he "restricted the counsel of Fries from citing such English authorities as they believed apposite, and certain statutes of the United States, which they deemed material to their defence;" that the prisoner was debarred by him from his constitutional privilege of addressing the jury, through his counsel, on the law, as well as the fact, involved in the verdict which they were required to give—and that he attempted to wrest from the jury their undeniable right to hear argument, and, consequently, to determine upon the question of law, which in a criminal case it was their sole and unquestionable province to decide. These last charges (except so far as relates to the laws of the United States) are impliedly admitted by the respondent. He confesses, that he would not permit the prisoner's counsel to cite certain cases, "because they could not inform but might deceive and mislead the jury." Mr. President, it is the noblest trait in this inestimable trial, that in criminal prosecutions, where the verdict is general, the jury are the sole judges, and, where they acquit the prisoner, the judges, without appeal, both of law and fact. And what is the declaration of the respondent but an admission, that he wished to take from the jury their indisputable privilege to hear argument and determine upon the law, and to usurp to himself that power, which belonged to them, and to them only? It is one of the most glorious attributes of jury trial, that in criminal cases (particularly such as are capital) the prisoner's counsel may (and they often do) attempt "to deceive and mislead the jury." It is essential to the fairness of the trial, that it should be conducted with perfect freedom. It is congenial to the generous spirit of our institutions to lean to the side of an unhappy fellow creature, put in jeopardy, of limb, or life, or liberty. The free principles of our governments, individual and federal, teach us to make every humane allowance in his favour, to grant him with a liberality, unknown to the narrow and tyrannous maxims of most nations, every indulgence not inconsistent with the due administration of justice. Hence a greater latitude is allowed to the accused, than is permitted to the prosecutor. The jury, upon whose verdict the event is staked, are presumed to be men capable of understanding what they are called upon to decide, and the attorney for the state, a gentleman learned in his profession, capable of detecting and exposing the attempts of the opposite counsel to mislead and deceive. There is moreover the court, to which, in cases of difficulty, recourse might be had. But what indeed is the difficulty arising from the law in criminal cases, for the most part? What is to hinder an honest jury from deciding, especially after the aid of an able discussion, whether such an act was a killing with malice prepense, or such other overt acts set forth in an indictment, constituted a levying war against the United States—and to what purpose has treason been defined by the constitution itself, if overbearing, arbitrary judges are permitted to establish among us the odious and dangerous doctrine of constructive treason? The acts of Congress which had been referred to on the former trial, but which the respondent said he would not suffer to be cited again, tended to shew that the offence committed by Fries did not amount to treason. That it was a misdemeanor, only, already provided for by law and punishable with fine and imprisonment. The respondent indeed denies this part of the charge, but he justifies it even (as he says) if it be proved upon him. And are the laws of our own country (as well as foreign authorities) not to be suffered to be read in our courts, in justification of a man whose life is put in jeopardy!

The examination of the witnesses followed. In this interesting part of the work, we observe great attention paid to those rules of evidence, and maxims of conduct,

which are justified by the authority of judicial tribunals. In the trial of Warren Hastings, the managers on the part of the Commons contended, with persevering obstinacy, that they ought not to be bound by the rules of legal proceeding, which are observed in other cases, and before inferiour tribunals. The Commons, said Mr. Burke, disclaim all knowledge of pleading as a science. They are not clerks, but plain, simple laymen. If they speak the language of reason and plain sense, they are not bound to plead technically, or to speak according to the terms of science. By the constitution, the Lords are not considered as learned in the law, but merely as Barons, Swordsmen, and Cavaliers, with whom are mixed the Bishops, and it would be proper for them therefore to judge according to the principles of natural justice, and not according to certain narrow rules laid down in other courts. But in the whole course of that trial, their Lordships acted on quite different principles, and demonstrated by their decisions, that there was not, in their opinion, one rule of evidence, which did not apply to the House of Lords, as much as to any inferiour court in the kingdom. Mr. Burke denied, that there was any such thing as rules of evidence, and contended that all evidence must vary in its matter and in its manner, as the nature of each case varied. But his idea was extremely incorrect: for the rules of evidence result from the nature of things, and, like the laws of nature, are immutable. By these rules, it is not intended, that the same evidence will prove all cases: they respect rather the quality and degree of proof necessary to substantiate a fact. That oral testimony, for instance, is inadmissible to prove the contents of a deed, or written instrument, which are in existence; that the copy of an instrument shall not be used, where the original can be produced; and that a witness shall not be permitted to testify, unless under the solemnities of an oath; are rules of evidence, which certainly are founded in nature, and can never vary with the varieties of legal occasions, or be dispensed with by any tribunal.

Mr. Early's speech follows the examination of the witnesses. It commences with the following observation, which we find, in its revised state, in Smith's edition.—"There is no *attitude*, in which the government of this nation can be viewed, more completely demonstrative of the *efficacy* of its principles, than that, in which it is now placed." Whether Mr. E. thought that, at that time, the government was standing, or walking, or sitting, or sleeping, we know not; and how the *attitude* of a government should demonstrate its *principles*, is a little mysterious. It appears to us as difficult to comprehend, as it would be to ascertain, from a man's gait, whether he were a Roundhead or a Cavalier. Sallust remarks a peculiarity in Cataline's gait: "citus modò, modò tardus incessus": sometimes walking rapidly, then suddenly stopping and looking, as though he feared that he was pursued. This indicated a mind, haunted with the images of former crimes, and loaded with the consciousness of guilt. But the use of this rhetorical figure in the present instance is the first time that we have seen it applied to a body politick; and we leave it with this one observation, that its use has not yet been established by standard au-

thority. Mr. E.'s speech abounds with hyperbolical expression and superlative epithet, which, like profane and idle oaths and imprecations in common discourse, indicate a poverty of invention as well as a corrupt taste. His view of the subject is very general. Something like an argument is attempted on the first article, but his manner throughout is loose and declamatory.

We are better pleased with Mr. Campbell's speech, as it appears revised in Smith's edition. His style is plain and impressive, without an attempt at any great degree of elevation. He confines himself to an investigation of the conduct of the respondent at the trials of Fries and of Callender. His view is general, and executed with considerable ability. It is vastly superiour to the vapid performance of Mr. Early. Even the freedom, with which he treats the respondent, and the resentment, which he expresses at his conduct, are excusable, because they are the prerogative of animated debate.

This volume next presents us with the speeches of Messrs. Hopkinson, Key, Lee, Martin, and Harper. They are models of forensick eloquence. We have devoted so much attention to the answer of the respondent, that we must be content to give our opinion of the character of the arguments for and against the prosecution, without minutely analysing them, and without the insertion of copious extracts.

The defence was commenced by Mr. Hopkinson, the introduction to whose speech is truly eloquent and impressive. It is confined to a defence of the respondent on the first article. The language is dignified, and the whole oration is not unworthy, for its excellent substance and elegant form, to be compared with some of the celebrated productions of the Roman bar.

Mr. Key's speech is confined to the second, third, and fourth articles of impeachment, and is, to use the language of Mr. Lee, in the style and manner of an "elegant advocate."

Mr. Lee's speech displays much judicial skill, united to an ease and simplicity of manner, which are highly pleasing.

Mr. Martin confines his particular attention to the fifth and sixth, after a survey of the preceding articles of impeachment. He discusses with great ability the relative duties of judges and counsel, and the respective rights of judges and jurors. He incontestibly proves, on the authority both of precedent and reason, that the right of the court to decide the law, is the same in criminal as in civil cases. He demonstrates, that the process, issued by the respondent in the case of Callender, was correct. "Two highly respectable legal characters in Virginia, who successively held the office of attorney general (Col. James and Gen. Brooke) were applied to by one of their deputies, and declared themselves incapable to decide, what ought to be the practice; or in other words, to decide in what cases a summons ought to be used, and in what cases a capias was the proper process." This point, which had puzzled the Virginia lawyers, Mr. Martin, by his luminous investigation, has, we presume, settled; for which service the bar of that state ought to be very grateful. The style and manner of Mr. Hopkinson is very

dissimilar to those of Mr. Martin. The former resembles a majestic stream, flowing with silent grandeur down its lofty banks. The latter is a torrent, which bears down all before it. Mr. Martin's conclusion is abrupt, and unequal to the preceding parts of his oration. After a minute and somewhat dry discussion of a point of legal practice, extracted from statute provisions, the orator ought gradually to have descended from the height of legal abstraction, and relieved the mind of his auditors by a conclusion of a milder and more dignified form.

Judge Chase's defence was concluded by Mr. Harper. His speech has less of a professional dress, than either of those, which were delivered by his associates. It is calculated for an assembly, which, like the senate, was composed of eminent characters from the various professions in society. The distinguishing trait of this speech is the candour of the orator. He boldly meets the facts in the case, as they had been related most to the disadvantage of his client, and satisfactorily shews, where the witnesses must have been mistaken, and where the acts, charged as criminal in the respondent, were judicially correct. Candour is the legitimate offspring of a magnanimous and liberal spirit. So much does it gain on the hearts of men, that its form is often artfully assumed even for dishonest purposes. Orators at the bar are generally unwilling to yield any thing to their antagonists. But who, that has any experience, will not confess, that there is in almost every cause good and evil. It is a departure from moral purity, to attempt to give to wrong the appearance of right. When an orator has defended his client, where his conduct admits defence; when he has with warmth of heart and eloquence of language, urged in his behalf, whatever is consistent with good logick and truth, he has honourably discharged his duty, and ought then to submit to the decisions of those, who are invested with the authority to decide.

In assigning to contradictory testimony the grades of credit, to which its several parts are entitled, in elucidating dark passages, and in extracting from the informal mass the forms and proportion of truth, are among the most difficult tasks of forensick orators. There was, in this case, much occasion for legal discrimination, and of this talent Mr. Harper appears to be eminently possessed. His language is uniformly dignified, and strictly within the limits of decent and manly expostulation. He takes a general view of the whole subject of impeachment, but more particularly confines his attention to the transactions at New Castle in Delaware, and to the eighth charge.

Whoever reads this case must be sensible, that the managers had to contend with complicated embarrassments. The counsel for the respondent were from among the most eminent professional characters in the United States. The facts contained in the articles could not, with all the authority of the accusing power, and with all the zeal and ability of the managers, be shewn to be subject of impeachment. Strip them of their technical language, reduce them to the "simple elements of their own merit," and what will remain against the respondent, which indicates a crime? Feeble as was the accusation, it derived no strength from the testimony, after a most thorough investigation of which,

the articles of impeachment seemed to vanish away, like a vision of the night, fading from the memory, and scarcely leaving a trace of its brief and airy existence.

Mr. Nicholson first replies on the part of the prosecution. His speech, as reported in this volume, contains nothing subtle or eloquent. It is brief. He first attempts to prove, that to sustain an impeachment, it is not necessary, that the offence should be an indictable one, which was strenuously contended by the counsel for the respondent. The rest of his speech is confined to an examination of the several specifications under the first article of impeachment.

Mr. Rodney's speech is superior, both in substance and manner, to either of the speeches, which were made on the part of the prosecution. We wish to introduce the orators to the knowledge of our readers, and we select the following passage from Mr. Rodney's speech, as a specimen of his style and manner.

I will proceed to make a few remarks on the last article. The impropriety of the conduct of the judge, in this case, must have struck the mind of every member of the court. I believe all of them disapprove of political charges. It certainly has been the practice of the judges in the United States to deliver political charges to grand juries, and to level their artillery upon the measures of the government. But is that to justify a judge in becoming a political preacher? It is indubitably of the utmost importance that courts of justice should be kept pure. Party spirit should never be suffered to enter their walls. Provided laws are administered with justice and impartiality to every person, we may always look up to courts of justice for protection. So long as the courts and juries remain pure and uncorrupted, we may be confident of safety, if innocent; but when judges undertake to erect those sacred places into political hustings, they must lose their respect in the eyes of the people, and business cannot be confided in them with confidence. Will not the juries adopt political prejudices and carry them home with them, and decide more from political parties than justice? Justice should be administered between man and man without any distinction, and this conduct of the respondent goes to prevent it. Although books have been produced, and a number of high authorities cited, to justify the delivery of political charges, I must be allowed to enter my protest against them; but no instance has been cited where a judge has, like the respondent, exclaimed against the acts of the government. When we look at the charge, which has been offered in evidence by him, we find him censuring one of the most important acts of the government. I allude to the repeal of the judiciary system; in this he censured every branch of the government. I am not about to dispute the right of Judge Chase in his individual capacity to exercise his talents to prevent any measure from being adopted. But that right cannot apply to the case before the court. He cannot be justified in delivering from the bench denunciations against both the measures of the United States and the state in which he held the court. Nor did he stop there. He went on to declaim against citizens of the state, for being in favour of measures which he deemed improper. Every member of this court must know that state jealousies still exist, and it ought to be the anxious care of every man, to say or do nothing calculated to excite jealousies between the United States and any individual state. Was it a part of the duty of the judge, to preach up against the acts of the legislature of Maryland? Assuredly not. He had no right to thunder anathemas against the measures of any state.

Either the reporter has been very unjust, or Mr. Randolph is most lamentably deficient in legal science and talents for the forum. Judging from his appearance at this trial, we are of opinion, that he is well calculated to address a mob, or even to drive a majority in a deliberative assembly, who are devoted to his will. His speech, which concludes the arguments in behalf of the prosecution, is a declamatory

harangue, in which the pre-eminent traits are, his lofty esteem of himself, and his unbounded hatred of the respondent. In his manner Mr. R. is extremely desultory. For this defect he apologizes, by observing, that he had unfortunately lost his notes. We confess our astonishment at his apparent ignorance of a prosecution, which had been "instituted at his instigation," of articles, which "came solely from his pen," and "the meaning of every word of which," he confesses, "that he felt bound to explain."

On the 1st day of March, 1805, after a full and patient investigation, Judge Chase was, by the decision of the high court of impeachment, acquitted on the articles exhibited against him by the house of representatives. Whether it is our province to pass a sentence, or even to hint an opinion, on the innocence or guilt of the accused, is problematical. He was acquitted by his judges, and that most honourably. He appears to possess a mind ardent, lofty, and overbearing. But who may more rightfully assume an imperial voice and gesture, than the judges and authoritative expounders of the law? In the administration of justice, a judge must be deaf to pity and friendship. He may not listen to the claims of blood or affection, and therefore to superficial observers he may at times betray an unfeeling temper. In the course of his official duties, he must lay the heavy hand of justice on guilt, which sometimes excites pity even by its weakness. But never is the duty of a judge more difficult or ungrateful, than either when he is compelled to act against popular passion and prejudice, or in seasons of political fermentation. Freedom from blame at such times is more than usually falls to the lot of mortals: since he is liable to err even from an excessive desire to avoid mistake. While therefore we humbly declare, that Judge Chase's conduct was, in every material act, free from crime; in some respects it was not free from fault. We allude to the opinion which he gave at the trial of Fries, which was, in respect of the time and manner of it, a novelty in judicial proceedings. Mr. Harper confesses that it was an errour. The honourable Judge was himself, solicitous to expiate his mistake with a generous penitence, but in a manner worthy of his dignified station. Let not the vain and presumptuous man, who is inconscious of his own limited powers, exult over this concession. Let not the personal and political enemies of Judge Chase presume, from this concession, to rank us among his accusers. But let them unite with us, if they have the grace so to do, in deploring the imperfections, which are incident even to great and illustrious minds; and let them weep, if they have the feeling to weep, over the frailties of the human character.

It is impossible to read this trial without mingled emotions. A judge of the supreme judicature of the nation, venerable for his years, for his integrity, and for his publick services, arraigned before the most august tribunal of his country, and charged with the commission of high crimes and misdemeanors, is a sublime spectacle, on which illustrious villany may look with fearful anticipation. It is honourable to the justice of a country, that it should contain a tribunal, for bringing to punishment criminals of the highest order. But let it be recollected, that where great power is reposed, it is

expected that it will be held with a degree of caution, equal to the magnitude of the effect, which its exercise is calculated to produce. When therefore we see an eminent citizen impeached for "high crimes and misdemeanors," and on solemn trial it appears, that there existed against him no evidence of oppression, no suspicion of corrupt or wilful misconduct in office, it requires all our charity, and all our respect for constituted authority, to believe, that the accusation resulted from a sacred regard to the publick good. Justice impartial, and freely administered to men of all degrees and of all parties, is the sure basis of national prosperity. The body politick derives health and vigour from the salutary streams of justice, but if the fountain once becomes impure, a sickly paleness will gradually overspread the surface of the system, indicating its rapid dissolution. When the measure of justice in a nation is to be ascertained by passion, prejudice, or party spirit, or by any other rule than the eternal principles of right and wrong, and when the solemn forms of justice are to be prostituted to such nefarious purpose, that nation is rapidly following the fate of those corrupt systems of antiquity, whose ruins still warn nations and rulers, that they should be just.

ART. 3.

War in disguise; or, the frauds of the neutral flags. London, printed: New-York, re-printed by Hopkins & Seymour, for I. Riley & Co, &c. &c. Jan. 1806. *pp.* 215.

THE writer of this pamphlet introduces his subject with some remarks on the importance of the British navy, which few persons in America, and none in England, will be inclined to controvert. Bonaparte's naval efforts, he says, have been great and unremitted, and far more formidable than could have been expected, considering the destruction of French commerce. "The loss of the British superiority at sea," he adds, "would remove from before the ambition of France almost every obstacle, by which its march to universal empire could be impeded." The truth of this position also seems to be clear.

To shew the possibility that G. Britain may finally lose, and France acquire the sovereignty of the seas, he proposes, as the chief design of this pamphlet, to prove, "that by the encroachments and frauds of the neutral flags France has found a nursery and a refuge for her navy, and that of her Dutch and Spanish allies, as well as secret conduits for those resources, by which she has nourished and augmented it."

Here again, no doubt will exist, that neutral commerce is of great and indispensable advantage to France and her allies, without which they could scarcely draw a single dollar from their colonies. This position of things furnishes a very strong inducement to Great-Britain to disturb the commerce of neutrals with her enemies' colonies, and to trump up new and specious principles to vindicate her aggressions. The principles of this pamphlet writer ought therefore to be examined with some suspicion in America, but they ought to be carefully examined.

The pamphlet proceeds to state the singular fact, that, destitute of all active commerce, as France certainly is, and of all means of affording naval protection to her commerce, nevertheless her resources appear to be unimpaired

in consequence. This, it is truly said, is a different result from what ever happened in all former wars. Only the *partial* stoppage of the French commerce by the superiority of the British fleets used to produce the last extremity of distress to the people and government of France; so that, strong as the French ever were on land, "the house of Bourbon was vanquished by the masters of the sea."

He accounts for this strange circumstance by ascribing its cause to the use of the neutral flags. If he supposes, that the great mass of the cargoes of the colonial produce, freighted on board American vessels is not, *bona fide*, the property of Americans, we believe he is grossly mistaken. American capital is adequate to the purchase of these products, and this is what Englishmen cannot easily be made to believe. Nevertheless the purchase of the crops of Martinique and Guadaloupe by American merchants obviously relieves the French planters from the pressure of the war. How is their prosperity retarded or obstructed, if they can have a full price for their crops, the superiority of the British navy notwithstanding? It is true, not a French merchant flag is seen on the ocean. But as the French planter owns no ships, and is interested directly only in the sale of his rum, coffee, cotton, sugar, &c. if the neutral will buy these articles and pay for them at a good price, it is plain the war does not reach the colony to cramp its growth, or to obstruct its supplies, which are abundantly furnished by neutrals.

This state of things, which is verified by the most ample experience, produces no little disappointment and vexation to the belligerent. Hence, as the British arms and our commercial gains mutually obstruct each other, it is extremely natural, that angry invectives and recriminations should ensue between the American and British nations. The usual progress of popular passions, when so excited, is to insult, retaliation, and war. This is a course, which it is incredible the government of either of the two countries should wish to pursue.

Supposing that there is not on either side a disposition to fight, there ought to be a mutual willingness to argue.

The pamphlet writer proceeds to examine, 1st, the origin, nature, and extent of what he calls the evils and abuses of neutral flags. 2d, the remedy and right of applying it. 3d, the prudence of that resort.

Under the first head, "the origin, nature, and extent of the evil," he premises, "that a neutral has no right to deliver a belligerent from the pressure of his enemy's hostilities, by trading with his colonies in time of war, in a way that was prohibited in time of peace." Here we find the marrow of the great question, at present depending between the belligerent and neutral nations.

To support the negative, i.e. that a neutral has no right in time of war to any other trade with an enemy's colonies, than what is permitted in time of peace, he quotes at length the opinion of Sir William Scott, in the case of the Emanuel, Nov. 1799. This, he asserts, was the doctrine of the war of 1756. One of the leading points decided against the Dutch in that war was, we believe, that French colonial property on board Dutch vessels was liable to condemnation; in other words that free ships did not make free goods. That they

do, is indeed pretended by the French, and we believe only by the French, or those under their influence; but there is demonstrably no ground for such a doctrine, either as they pretend to derive it from the law of nations, or from a just regard to the commercial advantage of neutrals. By establishing such a doctrine the French, while inferior at sea, would gain much, but the neutral American would certainly be a loser.

If the principle, that "free ships make free goods," had been established, as was vainly attempted, twenty-five years ago, neutrals would have been deprived of immense pecuniary advantages, which they have hitherto enjoyed, and would, in exchange, have derived from the innovation no benefit, to which they are not fully entitled by the acknowledged law of nations. By the operation of the laws of maritime war, the commerce of belligerents is subject to heavy losses and expenses, from which neutrals are exempt. This gives to the latter an advantage over the former, equal, at the least, to the full amount of those losses and expenses; or it drives the belligerent merchant from the sea, and thus leaves to the neutral a virtual monopoly of the whole commerce, which both had carried on. It in effect, therefore, enables the neutral to trade with the belligerent, without the possibility of the latter being an equal competitor; of course *it enables the neutral to sell unusually dear, and buy unusually cheap.* He sells dear in the country of the belligerent, because a part of the supply is cut off, and a part carried at an extremely dear rate. He buys the products of the belligerent cheap, because a part of the usual buyers withdraw from the market, and and others cannot afford the accustomed price. Thus the insecurity and increased expense of the belligerent's own trade, augment the profits of the neutral, whose trade is safe. But if free ships made the goods free, *all the commerce would be equally safe*, and the neutral would have no new reward, but simple freight (always the lowest of mercantile wages) to compensate him for the various inconveniences, to which the war exposes him; that is, he would be confined to the earnings of a mere porter, instead of superadding the profits of a merchant, and the income of a capitalist.

We have great doubts, however, whether the decisions of 1756 afford any very clear authority, either for the present British principles, or for the claims of neutral nations. The state of things now in existence is totally unlike any thing that ever was in 1756, or in any war before 1793. Laws, to be of any use or authority, must be founded on their adaptation to existing circumstances. The controversy is a new one, because there never was, till 1793, any room for agitating it. Never, till that time, were France and her allies stripped of all active commerce, and literally banished from the ocean. Of course, never till then were they obliged to use the aid of neutrals, or forego entirely the benefit of their colonial commerce. It is our duty to state the fact. It is the duty of others, more adequate to the task, to draw from it the proper inferences.

The author of the pamphlet proceeds through nearly one hundred pages, to enlarge upon the principle of the war of 1756, and to explain and vindicate the conduct of the British government, and the decisions of the admiralty

courts. We have not room to exhibit an abstract of the argument, which nevertheless we recommend to our American statesmen to peruse and confute. We have already hinted at a reason for our forbearing to do this. We believe the ultimate settlement of the controversy will depend more on the actual situation of the parties at the present day, than upon the course of their former conduct and opinions, when their situation was exceedingly dissimilar.

The author supposes fraud on the part of neutrals, in covering enemy's property, to a much greater extent than American merchants will believe is the fact.* Yet he undertakes, p. 102, to say, that his conclusion does not depend on the fact assumed. For

"If the hostile colonies are supplied with all necessary imports, and their produce finds its way to market, the enemy is effectually relieved from the chief pressure of the war, even though both branches of the trade should pass into foreign hands, in reality as well as in form." He adds, that "the produce of the West-Indies sells cheaper at present, clear of duties, in the ports of our enemies than in our own."—P. 105.

If this be true, we cannot see why the French colonies should not prosper beyond those of England. He tells us this is the fact; and repeats, as well founded, the boast of Bonaparte,

"That Guadaloupe and Martinique are flourishing so much beyond all former experience, that since 1789 they have doubled their population."

....

* There is probably some misrepresentation, and certainly some exaggeration of the conduct of neutrals, in this part of the pamphlet. There is also an evident want of correct information concerning the consumption of sugar and coffee in the United States. These errors seem to be less excusable, because accurate knowledge was easy to be procured, and it is admitted, by the writer himself, that the force of his main argument does not depend on their truth.

That colonies should thrive in produce and wealth, because the mother country is driven from the sea, and abandons them to shift as they can without naval protection, and that the English colonies should droop and decline, in consequence of the empire of the British navy on every sea, is certainly a strange assertion. The author strenuously insists, that this is the fact. English vessels are exposed to the peril of capture, and to war freights and premiums, and of course English West India produce goes dearer to market than the products of the enemy's colonies in neutral vessels. In this way, he says, the commerce of England, in West India products, is every where obstructed, and is nearly lost. But he insists, that the tendency of this system, to augment and man the marine of France, and to cramp and discourage that of G. Britain, is a still more disheartening and urgent consideration.

Having in detail treated of the origin, extent, and nature of the evil, he proceeds, page 137, to consider "*the remedy, and the right of applying it.*"

"If," he continues, "neutrals have no right, but through our concession, to carry on the colonial trade of our enemies, we may, *after a reasonable notice*, withdraw that ruinous indulgence." One of the chief topicks of complaint in America has been the condemnation of our vessels, without any such *notice* of their being liable to condemnation. Indeed, if Great-Britain could make out a right to seize them, it appears, that it has been exercised with an unwarrantable precipitancy and unnecessary harshness. As booty, the prizes go to the captors; and even if the government of England participated in

the proceeds, it cannot be supposed to be of magnitude enough to operate as a motive for the captures.

"Nothing," says the author, "can be more advantageous to England, than the suppression of the fraudulent commerce of neutrals. But if it requires a breach of justice, let us inflexibly abstain." These are honourable sentiments, whether the author really feels them, or thinks fit, in order to give force to his reasoning, to affect them.

He professes to think, there is no doubt of the British *right* to stop this trade.

"Neutral ships (he observes) when taken in a *direct* voyage to or from the hostile countries and their colonies, or in a trade between the latter and any other neutral country, but their own, have been always condemned by our prize courts, both in the last and the present war. These restrictions can be warranted by no other principle, than the unlawfulness of trading with the colonies of a belligerent in time of war, in a way not permitted in time of peace."

He asks, "whether it is possible that neutral states, in peace and amity with Great-Britain, should have *a right* to persevere in conduct, which may, in its natural consequences, make *England a province of France?*"

Supposing this to be the natural consequence, it would be difficult to prove, that a neutral has any such right: for the right of the belligerent to exist, is to be preferred to the right of neutrals to make gain.

"With what intention," he asks, "did the enemy open his colonial ports to neutrals? The single, manifest, and undissembled object was, to obtain protection and advantage in the war, to preserve his colonial interests without the risk of defending them, and to shield himself, in this most vulnerable part, from the naval hostilities of England."

"I see not," he continues, "how any mind can doubt, that a co-operation in such an expedient, by powers in amity with England, is a violation of the duties of neutrality."

He adds, that "this very motive for opening the colonial ports is avowed in the publick instruments, by which they were opened. With the first news of a war the orders of the mother country to open those ports are dispatched, as of course. Neutrals can shew no treaty, no convention with the enemies of Great-Britain, as a title to these privileges, that grow out of war, begin and end with it."

Page 183. He considers the probability of a quarrel with the neutral powers, in consequence of the resort to the remedy he has recommended, i.e. of withdrawing the indulgence hitherto allowed to this trade; and he endeavours, 3dly, to vindicate the *prudence of the remedy* by shewing, that the neutral powers will not quarrel with England on that account. He firmly believes they will not, because he is sure they ought not. On this head, the writer seems disposed to speak of the United States with some respect. He thinks the Americans are a sagacious people, who will not fail to discern their interest; that they respect justice, and therefore will acquiesce in the exercise by Great-Britain of her just rights, as a belligerent; and that, being lovers of liberty, they will not like to see France lord of the navies, as well as of the armies of Europe.

"But (he goes on to say, page 196) he would not recommend a total prohibition of the colonial trade, though he maintains the *right* of Great-Britain to interdict it without reserve. We might extend to all the French colonial ports the privileges, enjoyed by Americans at some of those ports in time of peace (which privileges he specifies); nay, we might allow such an intercourse with the colonies of Spain and Holland." "The farmers of America would in that case find the same market for their produce, and of course they would be on the side of conciliation and peace."

But even a war with the neutral powers, bad as he admits such a war to be,would be a less evil than the abuses of neutrality.

"Peace with the neutral powers is more likely, after all, (he says) to be preserved by a firm than a pusillanimous conduct."

"To conclude: a temperate assertion of the true principles of the law of war, in regard to neutral commerce, seems, as far as human foresight can penetrate, *essential to our publick safety.*"

On the soundness of the doctrine of this writer, it belongs to the ablest American jurists and statesmen to pronounce a decision. As the pamphlet is written with considerable ability, and no little labour of research; as it is thought by many to convey the sense of the English government, and probably expresses the opinion of the nation too, it is obvious, that it will signify nothing on our side, to attempt an answer either by sophistry or invective. Indeed the answer will no less disgrace than disappoint America, if it should prove deficient either in candour or solidity. What can be plainer, than that nations, when they disagree, must appeal to reason, if they will not resort to force? If they do not choose to fight, they must negociate; and if they negociate, they must argue. Though our first magistrate assures us, that reason is the umpire between just nations, yet with his unfortunate and very unphilosophical antipathy against the British nation and government, and after all the false and silly things his adherents have said against the British treaty, negociation is understood to be the last expedient, to which our administration will think of resorting. It is palpably clear to common sense, that it should have been the first. For had an attempt been made to negociate when the British treaty was near expiring; when the British cabinet wished to make friends; and was discouraged to see itself without any; there is no doubt the dispute might have been prevented. At any rate, it would have been anticipated; and if our merchants had anticipated it, they would have saved some millions of dollars, which have since been captured and condemned. Thus it is, that the people have to pay for the national partialities and aversions of their rulers.

If our administration should attempt to frame a new treaty, they will not find in the federalists, we hope, the same want both of sense and principle, that fostered and protracted the opposition to Mr. Jay's. The negociation, it must be confessed, will be attended with great, we hope not insurmountable difficulties; and no man of sense will expect from it the recovery of every lucrative, neutral advantage, that we have at some times enjoyed. Our commercial and political situation would be much mended, if it were better ascertained; if our merchants knew what was safe, instead of conjecturing in the dark, what is right, what is permitted, or what will be maintained.

Great Britain most certainly is averse to a war with America. She is not only interested in our commerce and friendship, but dearly concerned to conciliate the exercise of her naval supremacy, if it be possible, with the judgment and conviction of the wise and able men among the neutral nations. Popular clamour, unsupported by that judgment, will soon expire; but the serious and steady censure of the wise will, in the end, augment the hatred and resentment, naturally engendered by her power, which will seek all opportuni-

ties to obstruct its energies, and will surely find some at last to subvert its foundations. Nothing, we know from observation and experience, proves so fatal to the duration of any sort of dominion, as the wantonness of its abuse. Great-Britain, strong by her navy, by her insular position, by her liberty, and, perhaps, not less so by her justice, will desire, will endeavour, and *ought really* to make considerable sacrifices, rather than not succeed to gain, in favour of her maritime principles, the acquiescence, if not the applause of the well informed and fair minded classes of men in the neutral states.

The American re-impression of this pamphlet is executed in a style of great typographical elegance, and prefaced with the following short notice.

"It was intended to have prefixed to this edition, an introduction of some length, exposing, in a succinct manner, some of the sophistries with which this singular work abounds, by way of putting the reader on his guard against them; but as it is now proposed to follow it shortly with a formal answer, nothing more is thought necessary here, than merely to apprize the reader of this circumstance."

CORRESPONDENCE.

WE readily insert the following note, not because we are flattered by its politeness, but because we think it fairly closes the controversy, in which we have been engaged. What the writers may gain by Miss Adams's silence we are not anxious to inquire, since we lose nothing, while our statements remain uncontradicted by the worthy woman, whose name we have reluctantly brought before the publick.

NOTE

To the Editors of the Anthology.

THE Authors of the "Compendious History of New England," replied to the review of their work, merely to defend themselves against false charges and insinuations, exhibited against them, which, had they remained uncontradicted, might have left wrong impressions on the minds of some of the readers of the Anthology. They had a right to expect different treatment from a body of men, who doubtless lay claim to the character of gentlemen and christians. With the author of the remarks on their reply they certainly can have no controversy. They are happy that his name is concealed from them and the publick. They envy him not any satisfaction, which he may now, or hereafter feel in reflecting on this transaction.

The authors of the Compendious History feel no reluctance in resting their reputation with the publick, as to the matter in controversy between them and the Reviewers, on the facts already published. If Miss Adams herself has any complaint against them, and shall think proper to make it known to them, they will assuredly listen to it with friendly attention, and promptly do what in them lies to remove it.

With the Reviewers, and every other *anonymous* writer on this subject, they now take a final leave.

Gentlemen, Jan. 22, 1806.

YOU will please give the inclosed a place in the Anthology for January, and oblige

Your humble servts. GILBERT & DEAN.

OUR feelings having been severely wounded by the appearance of a paragraph in the *Monthly Anthology* for *December* last, concerning the miscellaneous works of Col. DAVID HUMPHREYS, and which did not meet our eye until the latter end of last week, we beg leave, through the medium of your Anthology, to express our gratitude to that gentleman for the humanity which first prompted him to present us with the work; himself having discharged every demand for paper, printing, &c. and the liberality with which he allows us the use of several hundred dollars, which we have received from the subscribers to his work, and of which he has never drawn a single cent—constantly evading it, whenever we have requested to be permitted to settle with him.

Of the abilities of Col. Humphreys, as an *author* or *poet*, better judges than either the *Editors* of the *Anthology*, or ourselves, must decide. As a *soldier*, and a *patriot*, he has deserved well of his country—and as a man of *benevolence*, he will be gratefully remembered by many; but by none with more respect and esteem, than his obliged humble servants,

GILBERT & DEAN.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

Of New Publications in the U. States, for January, 1806.

Sunt bona, sunt quædam mediocria, sunt mala plura.—MART.

NEW WORKS.

Ballſtown ſprings, a moral poem, written at Ballſtown in 1805. pp. 22. 12mo.

Ode aux ſouverains de l'ancien monde, ſur la croiſade actuelle. Par le Comte Joſeph Henry Auguſte De Maccarthy. Du Nouveau Monde. L'an de nôtre Seigneur 1806. 8vo. pp. 16.

An abridgment of univerſal geography, together with ſketches of hiſtory. Deſigned for the uſe of ſchools in the United States. By Suſannah Rowſon. Boſton. John Weſt. 12mo. 87 cents; 9 dols. doz.

The flowers of fancy, or poetical wreath; carefully ſelected from the beſt authors. Baltimore. Butler. 12mo.

Conſiderations on the publick expediency of a bridge from one part of the town of Boſton to the other. Boſton. Manning & Loring. 1806. 25 cents.

An examination of the Britiſh doctrine which ſubjects to capture neutral trade to ports not open in time of peace. Price 1 dol. Waſhington.

A ſhort account of the life and death of Rev. John Lee, a methodiſt miniſter in the United States of America. By Jeſſe Lee. Baltimore. John W. Butler.

A ſermon, preached at the ordination of Rev. Charles Lowell, January 1, 1806. By Eliphalet Porter, A. M. paſtor of the 1ſt church in Roxbury. Together with the charge, by Profeſſor Ware, and right hand of fellowſhip, by Rev. Mr. Buckminſter. Boſton. Belcher & Armſtrong. 8vo. 1806.

A ſermon, preached in Providence, at the ordination of Rev. Henry Edes, July 17, 1805. By John Eliot, D. D. paſtor of the New North church, Boſton. Providence. James Carter. 8vo. 1805.

NEW EDITIONS.

The 1ſt volume of The life and pontificate of Leo X. By William Roſcoe. Philadelphia. Lorenzo Preſs. 1806.

Hutchinſon's Xenophon. Philadelphia. Claſſick Preſs. 8vo. Price 2,50 bound. 1806.

Vattel's law of nations. 8vo. Price 2,50. Northampton, Maſſ. S. & E. Butler.

Medical inquiries and obſervations, by Benjamin Ruſh, profeſſor of the inſtitutes and practice of medicine and of chemical practice in the univerſity of Pennſylvania. In 4 volumes. The 2d edition, reviſed and enlarged by the author. Philadelphia: printed by T. & G. Palmer for the Conrads, &c. pp. 1757. 1806.

The Lay of the Laſt Minſtrel, a poem, by Walter Scott. Philadelphia. Hugh Maxwell. December 1805.

Volumes III. IV. and V. of Hugh Maxwell's and T. S. Manning's edition of Shakeſpeare's Plays, with the corrections and illuſtrations of various commentators; to which are added notes by Johnſon and Stevens, reviſed and augmented by Iſaac Reed. Philadelphia.

Democracy unveiled, or tyranny ſtripped of the garb of patriotiſm, a poem, by Chriſtopher Cauſtic, LL.D. &c. The third edition, with great additions. In 2 volumes, 12mo. New York. I. Riley & Co. 1806.

Thomſon's Seaſons, in miniature. 1 dollar, morocco gilt; 75 cents, ſheep. Philadelphia. James Kelley. 1806.

Poems by John Marriot, of the ſociety of Friends, including a ſhort account of the author, and extracts from ſome of his letters. New Bedford. Abraham Shearman, jun. 12mo. 1805.

Univerſal hiſtory, ancient and modern, from the earlieſt records of time to the general peace of 1801. By William Mavor, vicar of Hurley, and chaplain to the earl of Dumphries. In 25 volumes, 12mo. Each volume ornamented with an hiſtorical engraving; with ſeveral maps. Price 33 dols. bound; in boards, 27. Philadelphia. Samuel F. Bradford.

A northern ſummer; or travels round the Baltick, through Denmark, Sweden, Ruſſia, Pruſſia, and part of Germany, in the year 1804. By John Carr, Eſq author of the Stranger in France, &c. In a neat octavo vol. Price 2 dols. Charleſton, S.C. Morton. December 1805.

Life of Preſident Edwards. 12mo. 1 dol. Northampton. S. & E. Butler. 1805.

A particular account of the military atchievements of General Moreau, and a compariſon between his character and that of Bonaparte. Philadelphia. Literary Publication Office. 1806.

The Federal Calculator, or American ſchoolmaſter's aſſiſtant and young man's companion, being a compendium of fed-

eral arithmetick, both practical and theoretical; originally compiled by T. Dilworth, and reviſed and adapted to the currency of the United States, by D. Hawley. A new and corrected edition. Troy, New York. Obadiah Penniman & Co. 12mo. 1805.

An introduction to ſpelling and reading, in 2 volumes, being the 1ſt and 2d parts of a Columbian exerciſe. The whole compriſing an eaſy and ſyſtematical method of teaching and learning the Engliſh language. By Abner Alden, A. M. Troy, New York. Obadiah Penniman & Co. December 1805.

War in diſguiſe; or, the frauds of the neutral flags. London, printed: New York, re-printed by Hopkins & Seymour, for I. Riley & Co. &c. 1806. pp. 215.

The Salem collection of claſſical ſacred muſick, in three and four parts, conſiſting of pſalm tunes and occaſional pieces, ſelected from the works of the moſt eminent compoſers, ſuited to all the metres in general uſe. To which is prefixed, a ſhort introduction to pſalmody. Salem, Maſſachuſetts. Cuſhing & Appleton.

The ſafety of appearing at the day of judgment in the righteouſneſs of Chriſt. By Solomon Stoddard, formerly paſtor of the church in Northampton. 12mo. price 1 dol. Northampton, Maſſ. E. & S. Butler. 1805.

IN THE PRESS.

Επεα Πτεροεντα, or the diverſions of Purley. By John Horne Tooke. In 2 volumes, large 8vo. from the lateſt London edition in 2 vols. quarto. The types and paper have been made for this work alone, and Saxon and Gothick characters, the firſt of the kind executed in the United States, have been caſt at the expenſe of the publiſher at the foundery of Binny & Ronaldſon. The plates, with which the laſt edition was ornamented, have alſo been engraved for this edition by an artiſt of Philadelphia. Price 2,50 per volume, in boards. Philadelphia.

Lectures on the goſpel of St. Matthew, delivered in the pariſh church of St. James, in the years 1798, 1799, 1800, and 1801. By the Right Reverend Beilby Porteus, D. D. Biſhop of London. 8vo. Two volumes in one. The 2d American from the 5th London edition. Northampton, Maſſ. S. & E. Butler.

The new American Clerk's Magazine. Hagerſtown, Maryland. Dietrick.

PROPOSED TO BE PUBLISHED BY SUBSCRIPTION.

A monthly magazine, to embrace eccleſiaſtical hiſtory, morality, religion, and a variety of other uſeful and intereſting matter. Each number to conſiſt of 32 pages 8vo. ſtitched in blue. Price 1,50 per annum iſſued ſingly; or 1,25 in packages of not leſs than ten each. Danbury, Conn. John C. Gray & Co.

Carr's northern ſummer. 1 vol. 8vo. fine paper. Portland. Thomas Clark.

Brooke's general gazetteer; or a new and compendious geographical dictionary: Containing

A deſcription of the empires, kingdoms, ſtates, provinces, cities, towns, forts, ſeas, harbours, rivers, lakes, mountains, capes, &c. in the known world; with the government, cuſtoms, manners, and religion of the inhabitants; the extent, boundaries, and natural productions of each country; the trade, manufactures, and curioſities of the cities and towns; their longitude, latitude, bearings, and diſtances in Engliſh miles, from remarkable places; and the various events, by which they have been diſtinguiſhed: including a detail of the countries, cities, boroughs, market towns, and principal villages in G. Britain and Ireland; together with a ſuccinct account of, at leaſt, 700 cities, towns, and villages, in the United States, more than has appeared in any preceding edition of the ſame work; in which the numerous miſtakes and deficiencies of European Gazetteers, reſpecting this country, are corrected and ſupplied. Illuſtrated by eight maps, neatly executed. Originally written by R. Brooke, M. D. The firſt American from the latest European edition, with great additions and improvements in every part. In one 8vo. vol. to contain about 8 or 900 pages of cloſe printing and well bound. Price to ſubſcribers 3,50. Philadelphia. Jacob Johnſon.

Milton's Paradiſe Loſt, in miniature. 1 vol. Price in morocco 1 dol.; ſheep 75 cts. Philadelphia. Kelley.

Goldſmith's poems. Same ſtyle and price. Philadelphia. Kelley.

INTELLIGENCE.

Samuel F. Bradford, of Philadelphia, is preparing to put to preſs, The Works of Samuel Johnſon, LL.D. in eight volumes octavo. This edition, the publiſher aſſerts, will be much cheaper and warranted more correct and more beautiful, than the lateſt and beſt London editions.

....

American edition of Hudibras.—The ſubſcribers have juſt put to preſs, and will have ready for ſale in the ſpring, a new (and, they believe, the firſt American) edition of "HUDIBRAS: in three parts—written in the time of the late wars—by SAMUEL BUTLER: with annotations, a complete index, and a ſhort life of the author." It will be printed from the beſt Edinburgh edition, on wove paper, with a neat type, and will contain about three

hundred pages, duodecimo. To add any thing to the merit of a poem, which for original wit and genuine ſatire the literary world conſiders unrivalled and inimitable, would be as unneceſſary as it would be difficult.

WRIGHT, GOODENOW, & STOCKWELL.
Troy, N. Y. Jan. 14, 1806.

....

Dr. Cowdery has it in contemplation to publiſh a pamphlet, or ſmall volume, to be entitled, The American captives in Tripoli, containing the particulars of the capture of the Philadelphia frigate—a general deſcription of Tripoli, with the adjacent country, its curioſities, &c. and a ſketch of the cuſtoms and manners of its inhabitants. To which will be added, the journal at length, kept during his captivity, and an appendix containing the treaties and general relations between the United States and the Barbary powers. Some accurate views and drawings will be attached to the work.

....

Mr. Cuſhing, of Amherſt, Newhampſhire, has iſſued propoſals for continuing the publication of The Piſcataqua Evangelical Magazine. This work, which was publiſhed the laſt year at Portſmouth, has for its object the promotion of religious knowledge and evangelical piety, particularly among the common people, who, it is believed, uſually feel the greateſt intereſt in works of this nature. This magazine will contain eſſays of a moral and religious tendency, biographical ſketches, occaſional illuſtrations of ſcripture, accounts of remarkable providential occurrences, &c. &c. It will be publiſhed in numbers every two months, each number containing not leſs than forty pages octavo.

....

Mr. Joſeph Scott, author of the modern geographical dictionary, 4 vols. 8vo. dictionary of the United States, &c. &c. has iſſued propoſals for publiſhing, in a neat duodecimo volume, A geographical deſcription of the State of Pennſylvania, including an account of the rivers, mountains, trees, animals, ſoil, climate, diſeaſes, mineral ſprings, ores, foſſils, produce, fruit, farms, manufactures, publick improvements, roads, canals, bridges, education, colleges, and academies. Alſo, a deſcription of the counties; the extent, boundaries, and number of acres in each; the rivers, creeks, &c. and number of ſenators and repreſentatives, which each is entitled to ſend to the general aſſembly. With an alphabetical liſt of the townſhips in each county, and their population, according to the cenſus of 1800. Illuſtrated with a handſome map of the ſtate.

STATEMENT OF DISEASES,
FOR JANUARY.

THE weather, during the first part of this month was cold and clear. This was succeeded by milder weather, with rain and frequent snows. Afterwards, extreme cold, continued and heavy snow, rain with violent winds followed by a perfect calm, which has continued through the latter part of the month, attended with a thaw, and a very moist and foggy atmosphere. The last circumstances will very probably influence the character of disorders in the month of February.

Inflammatory diseases have been most prevalent; but even of these the number has been small. Among children under three years, there has appeared a severe catarrh; in those above this period, peripneumony; in adults, pleurisy and peripneumony. All these diseases have yielded readily to the power of medicine. Very few instances of fever have occurred, and scarcely any of severe rheumatism. Apoplexy has been unusually common.

Editors' Notes.

AMONG the few bookſellers, who have tranſmitted to us for our notice or review the books which they have publiſhed, we mention with gratitude meſſrs. Riley & Co. of New-York. We hope they will not accuſe us of neglect in not having yet noticed any of the numerous volumes which we have lately received from their liberality, for in truth the pages destined to reviews, in ſeveral of our late numbers, have been entirely filled with materials, which we have had a long time on hand.

We have been much ſurpriſed at hearing, that ſeveral of our readers believed, that the remarks upon Rev. Dr. Holmes and Mrs. Warren, in the review of the Hiſtorical Collections in our laſt number, were ſarcaſtick, illiberal, and diſreſpectful. We certainly never intended to convey ſuch opinions, and we know that a critical analyſis of the ſentences in the review would not juſtify ſuch a conſtruction. Perhaps however we were obſcure in the compoſition, and perhaps ſome of our friends were careleſs in the peruſal. Writers are not always perſpicuous, and readers are not always intellectual.